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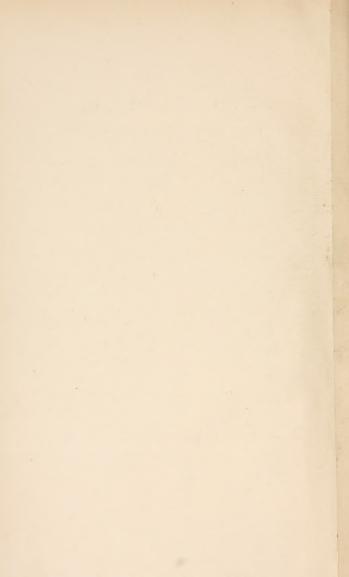
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RECORD OF SELECT LITERATURE .

Handkommentar zum Alten Testament.

Herausgegeben von Dr. W. Nowack, etc. Genesis übersetzt und erklärt von Hermann Gunkel, a. o. Professor an der Universität, Berlin. Goettingen: Vandenhoek und Ruprecht; London and Edinburgh: Williams & Norgate. Pp. lxxiv. +450. Price 10s. net.

This is one of the latest to appear of the volumes of Nowack's well-known commentary, though it is the first volume of the first part. It more than keeps up the high standard of the series to which it belongs, for it is hardly too much to say that it will be epoch-making. It will change the whole direction of the conflict as to the early books of the Pentateuch, and lead it into more fruitful directions, for it has raised the fundamental question whether the narratives in Genesis are not far older than the authors of the documents marked I, E, P, and whether they are not faithful witnesses to the religion of Israel before prophetic times. The lines upon which the commentary runs will be familiar to readers of the author's former book, Schöpfung und Chaos, but it will surprise most to see how revolutionary of critical conclusions his method is. He is as remote as possible, of course, from the supporters of the traditional view of the Old Testament. In his book the tiresome but necessary symbols I, E, D, P, RJE, and so on, all reappear. Moreover, he heaps up a towering mass of ingenious hypothesis with a cheerful and ingenious industry which nothing but immense respect for them all could sustain. In these and other respects, especially in his enormous industry and his wide learning, he is typical of the German critics who have turned the world of the Old Testament upside down. Nevertheless, his conclusions will in many respects be welcome to those who have felt how incredible some of the assumptions of the Kuenen-Wellhausen school of critics are.

He dedicates his book to Harnack as the man from whom he has learnt most; and probably it is from him he has learned the secure historic insight which makes him notable among recent writers of the Old Testament. He feels how much the hypothesis of historic invention by late writers has been overworked of late, and boldly restores the great mass of the stories of Genesis to the earliest times. Many of them he regards as pre-Israelite; almost none of them should, he thinks, be brought down in any essential feature below the time of David; and as a natural and necessary consequence, he finds that much of the higher religious feeling, which it is now the fashion to regard as due to the teaching of the writing prophets, was existent in very early if not primitive times. But he continually reminds himself and his readers how little we really know of the literature and life of early Israel, and in his preface he exhorts them not to overlook the continual recurrence of the words "probably," "may" and "can," and to remember that his disentanglement of the various documents is in great part hypothetical, and is not to be taken as final.

The most important part of the book from every point of view is the long but very interesting Introduction, which deals with the essential characteristics of the Book of Genesis as a collection of popular legends (Sagen). In it he discusses the nature of the legend or Sage (which, we need not say, does not mean to him a mere romantic tale), its various stages of growth, and the possibility of determining the order in time of the various kinds of legend which Genesis contains. conclusions may be set forth as follows: Originally each Sage was a short tale about some person, or place, or thing. This, first formed by some unknown poet, was thereafter handed on from generation to generation, most probably by professional reciters such as now flourish among the Arabic speaking peoples. Then after a time, all the tales about the same person, or place, or thing, were gathered into so many cycles or collections of tales. Finally, these collections again were formed into larger wholes, of which the History of Joseph is one of the latest and most fully developed specimens which Genesis contains. Of all these forms of the

traditional tale, there are specimens in the Old Testament and in Genesis. The short single tales are the earliest; the cycles come next in age; and the larger collections are the latest of all. The tales about the origins of things came, Gunkel thinks, into Palestine in the second millennium B.C., were absorbed by the Canaanites, and from them were received by the Israelites after the Exodus. The production of patriarchal traditions came to an end about B.C. 1200, and was essentially a Canaanite achievement, taken over by Israel at a later time and transformed. The specially Israelite tales, such as those of Dinah and Shechem were later, but still early in Israelite history, and the time of transformation was that of the early kings. "We may therefore probably assume," says Gunkel, "that these traditional tales, in so far as the course of the narrative is concerned, will have been essentially as we read them now about the year B.C. 900" (p. lxi.). But he adds that after that they may have undergone many an internal alteration. Again he says: "The picture of the growth of the legendary traditions of Israel which we get from all we can ascertain about it, is in large outline thus: the tales of origins are essentially Babylonian, the patriarchal tales are essentially Canaanite, then only comes the specially Israelite contribution " (p. xlii.).

As a consequence of this, Gunkel departs widely in his conception of J and E from the views generally held. Writers of the critical schools generally regard these as symbols for literary personalities whose writings form a unity and derive their essential features from their authors. They have even made the attempt to get some coherent conception of the authors from their works. Gunkel's view is that they were collectors, not authors, and that their works are codifications of oral tradition, not literary works at all (p. lvi.). They contain, he thinks, earlier collections, and have been formed by various hands. There may have been a whole literature of such collections, of which those which have come down to us are mere fragments. The whole process began in oral tradition. The first hands which noted down the tales may have written down many of them in the connected form oral tradition had already

given them; others added new tales; and the collection has thus grown by slow degrees. And so our collections J and E came into existence along with others. J and E are consequently not individual writers, nor even editors of older connected individual writings. They are guilds of "talenarrators." who are not masters but servants of their materials. In answer to the question when the collection of the popular traditional tales took place, Gunkel refuses to give a more definite answer than the indications above given contain. He admits that he can have, for fixing dates, only internal evidence, but this evidence depends again upon the arrangement of the various kinds of tales according to dates, so that he has to say-(would that others had had the same insight and the same candour!)-" Consequently we move here in the usual circle, and so far as can be seen will never get out of it". But the real question is not so much one of date as of the relation of I and E to written prophecy. Regarding that Gunkel has the following noteworthy utterance: "In Genesis there are many things resembling what these prophets teach; but the assumption of many moderns that this resemblance must be traced back to the influence of the writing prophets, is extremely doubtful in many cases: we do not know the religion of Israel sufficiently well to be able to assert that certain thoughts and feelings first came into the world by just these prophets whose writings we have, i.e., since Amos. The earnestness with which the general sinfulness is spoken of in the story of the Flood, and the praise of the faith of Abraham are not prophetic" (pp. lxii. and lxiii.). The aversion of the collectors to the images of Yahweh, to the Asheras (sacred posts) of which they never speak, to the Masseboth which I does not mention, but which are still to be found in E, and also to the "golden calf" which is regarded by the tradition in Exodus xxxii, from E as sinful, and to the Teraphim, at which the Jacob-Laban story wittily mocks, all this need not rest upon the influence of the prophets. Feelings of that kind may have existed in Israel long before the "Prophets," nay, we must presuppose them if we are to make the rise of the prophets intelligible. It is true that E calls Abraham a Nabi (prophet) (xx. 7): he

consequently must have lived at a time when "prophet" and "man of God" were identical; but long before Amos the Nebiim flourished as a class, and in Hosea xii. 14 Moses is called a prophet. Nothing, consequently, stands in the way of our holding J and E to be essentially pre-prophetic (pp. lxii.). The main reasons given by Gunkel for this momentous conclusion will be found on pp. lxiii. sqq. The following are some of the more important. Literary prophecy is characterised by prophecies of Israel's overthrow, by a polemic against strange gods and Israel's holy places, and by the rejection of sacrifice and ceremonies. Now all these are wanting in J and E. J in Genesis never thinks of other gods than Yahweh, nor in Genesis anywhere is the struggle against strange gods mentioned. Further, these collections contain very much which must have been in the highest degree repulsive to the prophets. They take up a friendly attitude to the holy places which the prophets so bitterly opposed. They show a naïve toleration of the ancient religion and morality, which is the exact contrary of the terrible denunciations of the prophets. Lastly, we know from the prophetic editing of the historic books what position the legitimate disciples of the prophets took up towards ancient tradition. They would certainly not have cherished the popular traditionary lore which contained so much "heathenish naughtiness". They would have extirpated it rather. "Accordingly," he says, "it must be concluded that these collections in all essentials belong to a time before the great literary prophets, and that the coincidences with the spirit of their movement which are to be found in I and E show that the thoughts of the prophets were passing through many a mind long before the time of Amos." Of course he admits that E and I were revised and combined by an editor REJ, whom he puts in the last period of the history of Judah. But he holds that this editor interfered very little with the material he had before him, and certainly in no way changed the religious outlook of these collections. See the list of the passages which he gives to RJE.

The author of P, on the contrary, is, Gunkel thinks, not a collector but a literary man who alters and leaves out and

extends his authorities very arbitrarily. But in Genesis tradition was too strong for him, and even he took much of his material from an ancient source, which was not (for Genesis at least) J or E, but some related collection. To this oldest material he would reckon Genesis I. He thinks P was written between 500 and 444, and was the book of the law read by Ezra. Later than that appeared RJEP, who made the Pentateuch much as we know it sometime before the Samaritan secession, though some few additions, e.g., Gen. xiv. 11, were added later.

That in briefest outline is Gunkel's account of the character. growth and significance of the book of Genesis, and it will be obvious at a glance what an upsetting of current conceptions in regard to the history of religion must follow if it be accepted. The "pre-prophetic" religion, as the Wellhausen school call the religion of Israel before Amos, ceases to have the low and degraded character which we are told it had. For centuries before Amos there had been a monotheistic faith in the hearts of the people, working itself clear of any complicity with polytheism even in the popular stories of the past which were handed down from generation to generation. As Gunkel says, "this religion was from the beginning auf den Monotheismus hin angelegt," and had hit its mark before the writing prophets appeared. In following these stories too we see the connection of the Deity with special places of worship being gradually loosened. In no Sage is God bound to a place. The view represented is that places of worship are sacred to the Deity, not because He dwells there but because He appeared once there in the early time to the Patriarchs. "The connection between the sanctuaries and religion had already been loosened before the passionate polemic of the prophets cut it entirely." Further, so far from the universal faith of pre-prophetic Israel being that Yahweh made no moral conditions before taking men into his favour, there are traditionary tales which make the favour of God depend upon righteousness in man. "In Israel," says Gunkel (p. xlix.), "these are very old (uralt). The faith that God looks with approval upon the righteous, but requites the sinner according

to his sin, has certainly been always (von jeher) part of the religion of Israel." Moreover Yahweh is in these early times a God of mercy. The story of Hagar shows that he has pity upon the despairing and the wretched even when they are not of Israel and he hears the weeping even of a child. Further, it is faith, obedience, unshakable trust in God which is reckoned as righteousness by God, as is shown by the pre-prophetic story (see p. 220) of Abraham's willingness to sacrifice his son.

These are only specimens of the important points of religious belief and moral practice which Gunkel restores to the earlier ages, after they had been given by most of the recent critical writers to the prophetic period. But taking even these, they are sufficient, if made good, to upset the whole of the current reconstructions of the religion of Israel. To most readers it will seem that he has in large part made them good. That dictum of Kuenen's given forth twenty-five years ago in his Godsdienst, that the whole collection of biblical books and each book in particular are witnesses as to the time at which they came into existence and little else, and which Budde in his latest book, The Religion of Israel to the Exile, continues to assert in the words (p. 16) "For the patriarchs are, in reality, nothing more than the ideal reflection of the nation Israel thrown back into the past" has never been rightly credible. To many it has appeared to be the most destructive and erroneous principle that a historian could adopt. But it has shaped most recent histories of Israel and a great deal of recent exegesis. The acceptance of Gunkel's book in Nowack's Handkommentar shows that the right of this dogma to dominate as it has done is beginning to seem doubtful even to some who have formerly paid it homage, and in future his facts and arguments will have to be faced. There can be no doubt that his book most skilfully begins a healthy and much-needed reaction. It. should, therefore, be read and welcomed by all students of the Old Testament whose minds are open.

The Books of Ezra and Nehemiah.

Critical edition of the Hebrew Text, printed in colours, exhibiting the composite structure of the books, with notes by Hermann Guthe, D.D., Professor in the University of Leipzig. English translation of the notes by B. W. Bacon, D.D., and D. B. Macdonald, B.D.; with additions by L. W. Batten, Ph.D. Leipzig: Hinrichs; London: Nutt, 1901. Pp. 72.

This new volume of Dr. Paul Haupt's Sacred Books of the Old Testament is fully equal to its predecessors in wealth of scholarship and in the indefatigable industry which has spent endless pains on every possible detail. The student may be confident that, as far as accuracy is concerned as distinguished from expression of opinion, the work carries the authority not only of its authors but also of the general editor of the series. This volume is specially important because of its relation to the problem of Old Testament criticism most discussed at the present time; a successful determination of the text and analysis of Ezra-Nehemiah would go far towards deciding the controversy as to the historicity of the accounts of the Return and of the rebuilding of the Temple. Without going into all the details, we may summarise Professor Guthe's analysis thus: For our purpose it will suffice to distinguish two kinds of material, (a) that composed between B.C. 450-410 and somewhat later-roughly speaking, in the period of Ezra and Nehemiah, and (b) the work of the Chronicler (circa B.C. 300) and later additions. Apart from minor interpolations, etc., (a) the earlier material consists of Ezra ii., v. 3-vi. 15, vii. 27-x. 24; Neh. i. 1-xi. 25, xii. 12-33, 37-40, 43-44, xiii., (b) the later material comprises Ezra i., iii. I-v. 2, vi. 16-vii. 26; Neh. xi. 26-xii. 10, 34-36, 41 f., 45-47. Thus, roughly again, (a) the earlier sources contain a portion of the account of the rebuilding of the Temple, together with

nearly the whole (cf. below) of the narratives concerning Ezra and Nehemiah. The early Temple narrative, Ezra v. 3vi. 5 (circa B.C. 450) with vi. 6-15 as a later addition, is interesting because it does not refer to Zerubbabel or, in its earlier form, to Haggai and Zechariah; and because it includes the correspondence between Darius and the Persian authorities in Palestine, and the decree of Cyrus authorising the rebuilding of the Temple. The genuineness of these documents has been defended against Kosters and others by Edward Meyer in Die Entstehung des Judenthums. Our author's analysis and notes seem to leave the question open; he will no doubt define his position in the notes on the English translation. In agreement with many recent critics, the reference to Zerubbabel in Ezra ii. is regarded as an addition of the Chronicler, and the chapter is treated as a document of the times of Ezra and Nehemiah, giving a census of the population in that period. (b) The later sources narrate the Return, the rebuilding of the Temple (in part) and its dedication; the earlier events rest on the later authorities, and vice versâ.

This analysis points to agreement with Kosters rather than with Edward Meyer; but we shall await with interest an explicit statement on the subject in the notes on the English translation. There are points in the analysis which one might criticise—e.g., Ezra iv. 24 should probably be assigned to the Chronicler as in Ryssel, but such criticism will be more in place on the English edition. It is a defect in these two allied series that the reasons for the analysis are given with the English text, inasmuch as its popular character excludes technical considerations necessary for a full statement of the case.

We may refer to a few details in the notes. From the point of view of English, "pile-bread," Neh. x. 33, is a singularly unfortunate rendering of lehem ma'arekheth; if a literal equivalent of the Hebrew is necessary, "the row of bread," given by the new Gesenius, would be more apt and more accurate. It cannot be considered established as yet that kāphar was originally "wipe off" rather than "cover".

On the other hand, it is somewhat surprising that there is apparent hesitation as to the connexion of the name Mordecai with Marduk; and that there is no reference to the work of Jensen and others on Esther. It is doubtful whether the use of names formed from those of Babylonian gods is sufficient proof of the worship of these gods by the Jews during the exile. The pointing of the Massoretic editors is taken somewhat too seriously—e.g., p. 33, ll. 37 ff.; but at present scholars hardly seem to realise all that is involved in modern critical principles on this subject.

W. H. BENNETT.

Muhammed's Lehre von der Offenbarung, quellenmässig untersucht.

Von Dr. Otto Pautz. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; London: Williams & Norgate, 1898. 8vo, pp. vi. + 304. Price M.8.

I. To the student of Comparative Religion the faith of Islam is of special interest and importance. Not only is Mohammedanism one of the great religions of the world, numbering some two hundred millions of adherents—a number which many acute observers consider is likely to grow rather than to diminish—but it has close points of contact with Judaism and Christianity; it has played a notable part in the history of civilisation and art; and the moral influence it exerts upon its followers is in many ways greater than is exercised upon the average Jew or the average Christian by their respective faiths.

In the work before us, Dr. Pautz has made a notable and welcome contribution to our knowledge of Mohammedanism. Our only quarrel is with the title of his book. Muhammed's Lehre von der Offenbarung is far too narrow to include all the contents. In fact, some of the most interesting passages have nothing to do with Mohammed's doctrine of revelation. The book contains, and we are very glad it does so, a pretty complete résumé of all that is essential and distinctive in Mohammedanism. At the same time the purpose that indirectly colours the whole is to vindicate the sincerity and moral earnestness of the founder of this religion, and his claim to the title of "prophet". The time is past when it was possible to dispose of Mohammed by the short and simple method of calling him "deceiver," or "visionary," or "false prophet," or even "devil-possessed". As Dr. Pautz truly remarks, "it would be denying the interposition of God

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in history were we to ascribe the great advance of Islam, as compared with ancient Arab heathenism, to the working of natural causes. The purifying of the conception of God, the establishing of an orderly community in place of bloody and mutually destructive tribal feuds, the securing of property, regulation of marriage, mild treatment of slaves, kindness to the stranger, the mourner and the poor, the abolition of barbarous practices like the burying alive of newly born female children-such are the results to which Mohammed could look back at the end of his activity." If by "prophet" is meant one who feels himself, as the direct organ of the Deity, to be completely one with God in thinking, speaking and acting, and who, moved by this consciousness, looks upon it as the one task of his life to make known the will of God for the present, and to reveal the Divine plans for the future, Mohammed is assuredly entitled to the name. Dr. Pautz urges, in confirmation of the sincerity of Mohammed, the disinterestedness he displayed when he might easily have acted differently, the devoted friendship accorded him by men like Abû Becher "the true," and the fact that his end was peace. Our author is far indeed from being undiscriminating in his praise. He admits that serious defects attach to Mohammed's character, which mark him as a child of his people and his time, and which place him far below the level of Him who could say, "Which of you convinceth Me of sin?" and who, had He lived after the founder of Islam, might have said, "A greater than Mohammed is here".

As sources for the discovery of Mohammed's doctrine of revelation, our author uses not only the Koran but the Arabic commentators, collections of traditions, and historical works. A very commendable and welcome feature of the work is that the copious citations from the authorities are given not only in Arabic but in a German translation, so that the argument can be followed by those who are not Arabic scholars. It is safe to say that nowhere else will one find in a single book so copious and accurate a collection of the data for arriving at a judgment regarding the position to be accorded to Mohammed and his religion.

The first chapter deals with Mohammed's Prophetic Consciousness. After showing how the moment of his appearance on the scene coincided with a felt want for something superior to the old religion, our author traces the experiences of Mohammed during his period of seclusion until he received his prophetic call through the angel Gabriel. Mohammed was himself doubtful for a time as to the heavenly origin of his mission; nay, his anxieties and doubts preyed upon his mind till he meditated suicide. Like Moses and Jeremiah, he shrank, too, from delivering the message, even when convinced of its genuineness. The account of the various forms in which he received his revelations strengthens one's impression of at least the subjective reality of the experiences to which he lays claim. Dr. Pautz appears to us rightly to reject the explanation of these as due to epilepsy, preferring to suppose that Mohammed was of a hysterical temperament, and subject to hallucinations and dreams which he elevated into sources of revelation.

It is very significant that Mohammed claims to occupy quite a different plane from the prophets and the rhapsodists of his time. To mark even externally the distinction between himself and the latter, he composed his revelations in "rhymed prose," the characteristic of which is that two or more successive verses end with the same vowel. At the same time the Koran is full of passages (witness its description of the Last Judgment) which show that Mohammed was a born poet.

The second chapter has for its title "Das Wesen der Offenbarung". The Fall of man is what explains the necessity and the motive of a Divine revelation. Although what we call the doctrine of Original Sin is not taught in the Koran, yet man's nature is now such as to require Divine "guidance," or, as it is sometimes expressed, "light". Through revelation man comes to "knowledge," and is delivered from spiritual death. All these purposes are served by the Koran (which our author makes = German "Vortrag," "Ausspruch," "Predigt"), a term originally applied by Mohammed himself to each several revelation, embracing

perhaps only part of a sura (chapter), but finally adopted as the designation for the whole body of these revelations. Like Christianity, Mohammedanism began by addressing itself to a narrow circle, but ended by claiming the character of a universal religion. In both cases the rejection of the faith by those to whom it was first offered led to its taking a wider range. Mohammed began with his own tribe, then turned to the Arab people, and finally to mankind in general (cf. Kor. vii. 157: "O ve men, I am the messenger of God to you all"). This universalism is regarded by Dr. Pautz as alone sufficient to create an a priori presumption against the notion that the doctrine of predestination is taught in the Koran, although after three centuries of controversy it was established as the orthodox doctrine. We would specially commend this section of the book as furnishing an excellent example of our author's thoroughness and his argumentative skill. He is equally clear that the doctrine of fatalism, which we are wont to associate with Mohammedanism, is no original element of Mohammed's teaching.

Mohammed's relation to Judaism and to Christianity raises important questions. He expressly recognised the Divine authority of both these religions, and he had hopes at first that, on the ground of what was common to his system and theirs, and by his making certain concessions, he would gain over both Jews and Christians, and these hopes were not wholly disappointed. Dr. Pautz shows, however, how on the part of the Jews a feeling of hostility grew up which led in the end to a complete breach with Mohammed, who had many of them put to death.

The third chapter, "Der Glaubensinhalt der Offenbarung," while the one that is least true to the title of the book, is by no means the least in value, with its succinct account of all that is material in the dogmas of Mohammedanism. We have, first of all, the conception of God, in which fear plays a much larger part than love. "To the Mohammedan, God is at bottom simply an Oriental despot, whom man does not love but fears, and before whom he sinks in the dust. It is to give expression to this feeling that various positions of the

body are assumed in prayer. Through the participation of his body as well as his soul in the act of homage, the whole man bows before the majesty of God." The cosmological and similar arguments for the existence of God are marshalled by Mohammed with much skill.

A significant saying of Mohammed's is, "The Lord led me to the right way of the true religion, the religion of Abraham," words which show that he did not claim to found an absolutely new religion, but to wean his countrymen from polytheism and to bring them to return to an alleged original monotheism. After moral suasion had failed with the idolaters, Mohammed felt compelled, however, to resort to more drastic measures. His rigid monotheism led him, as is well known, to offer uncompromising opposition to the Christian dogmas of the Trinity and the Divine sonship of Christ, to neither of which doctrines he was fair, simply because he did not understand them. It is remarkable how closely Mohammed's teaching about the death of Jesus approaches to the Basilidean notion that Simon the Cyrenian was crucified by the Iews in mistake for Jesus.

Next we are introduced to the Eschatology of Mohammed, with its account of the Resurrection and the Last Judgment and of the signs by which the approach of these great events may be detected. The very realistic account of the somewhat sensuous enjoyments of Paradise as well as the torments of hell may be traced partly to Mohammed's own imagination and partly to his having borrowed ideas from the Jewish Rabbis.

The fourth chapter, "Die Träger der Offenbarung," deals first of all with Mohammed's conception of the "prophet" or "messenger" as an organ of revelation. He declares himself to be the "last of the prophets," and his religion to be the absolutely true and final one. In this connection Dr. Pautz discusses the important question of how far Mohammed could honestly claim originality for many of the narratives and other constituents of the Koran. It appears to be certain that no written source, either Jewish or Christian, was at Mohammed's disposal—and this independently of the disputed point whether the prophet could read and write or Vol. XII.-No. 1.

not. For the features that are closely related to the Old Testament or the New Testament, he was probably indebted to oral communications from Jews and Christians. The difficulty of reconciling their decidedly secondary character with an honest claim on Mohammed's part that they were original, Dr. Pautz seeks to get over by ingenious psychological explanations, which practically amount to this that Mohammed was not consciously a borrower but believed himself to have received the messages anew from God.

It has been well remarked by Bousset that both the Christianity and the Judaism known to Mohammed were heterodox syncretistic systems, and that a full knowledge of the developments assumed by these two religions in East and South-east Palestine is necessary for a correct knowledge of the genesis of Mohammedanism.

Mohammed, like John the Baptist, did no miracle, and expressly repudiated the power of doing any. Yet, strangely enough, later generations credited him with thaumaturgical displays.

The book closes with a very useful summary of results. The two main points in Mohammedanism are found to be belief in God, the recompenser of good and evil, and belief in a future life, where retribution is finally displayed. The former of these doctrines is borrowed from Judaism, the latter mainly from Christianity. And vet Mohammed so handles his borrowed capital as to entitle him to claim to have founded a new religion. Nothing could illustrate better our author's positive attitude to the Christian religion, and at the same time his appreciation of all that is best in Mohammedanism, than the comparison and contrast he institutes between Mohammed and Christ, and the language in which he takes his farewell of the faith of Islam. Mohammed, he remarks, set up a kingdom of this world, which appeals to the evil as well as the good passions of men. Christ came not to be ministered unto but to minister. His course was through humiliation to glory. Mohammed, on the other hand, was prophet and despot in one. Christ rebuked the sons of Zebedee when they would have called down fire from heaven

on the Samaritan village; Mohammed exterminated a whole tribe of Jews. Christ lays down the law of love to one's neighbour, nay, extends it to one's enemies. In the Koran private revenge is sanctioned and even sanctified, and it is expressly said, "Only the faithful are brethren" (Kor. xlix. 10). What a contrast, again, to the disadvantage of Mohammedanism, between its sensuous conception of Paradise and the spiritual views taught by Christianity. Yet, with all its defects, Mohammedanism was an immense advance on what preceded it, and it may yet serve a pedagogic end in many lands, and pave the way for Christianity. If it could only be interpenetrated with Christian ideas and thus purified, it might yet accomplish much good. "Let us leave the future of this religion and its further development to the providence and wisdom of God, who has His purpose also with Mohammedans, and may lead them into all truth, so that at last, when there shall be one flock and one shepherd, even those who have inscribed Islâm upon their banner may be found worthy to enter into His heavenly kingdom."

J. A. SELBIE.

I. The Unity of the Book of Isaiah.

Linguistic and other Evidence of the Undivided Authorship, by Letitia D. Jeffreys; with a Preface by Rev. R. Sinker, D.D. Cambridge: Deighton Bell & Co., 1899. Small 8vo, pp. xi. + 56. Price 2s. 6d.

Kritische Geschichte der Thalmud-Uebersetzungen aller Zeiten und Zungen.

Von Dr. Erich Bischoff. Frankfurt a. M.: J. Kauffmann; London: Williams & Norgate, 1899. 8vo, pp. 111. Price 3s. net.

3. Kurzer Handcommentar zum Alt. Test., herausgegeben von K. Marti.

- (a) Leviticus crklärt von Lic. Alfred Bertholet, a. o. Prof. der Theol. in Basel. 8vo, pp. viii. + 104. Price M.2.40.
- (b) Die Bücher der Chronik erklärt von Lic. Dr. I. Benzinger, Privatdocent der Theol. in Berlin. 8vo, pp. xviii. + 141. Price M.3. Tübingen und Leipzig: J. C. B. Mohr; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. Price M.3.
- Die religiösen und ethischen Anschauungen des IV. Ezrabuches in Zusammenhang dargestellt: ein Beitrag zur j\u00fcdischen Religionsgeschichte.
- Von F. Walther Schiefer, cand. Theol. Leipzig: Dörfling & Franke; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. 8vo, pp. vi. + 76. Price 1s. 6d. net.
- I. Mrs. Jeffreys' little book in defence of the unity of the Book of Isaiah is dedicated to a bishop, it contains a preface by the librarian of Trinity College, Cambridge, and it has the approval of Dr. Valpy French. Yet we doubt if it will appeal with any force except to readers who are already of

the author's way of thinking. We admire the courage and (what is rarer in some quarters) the courtesy with which Mrs. Jeffreys seeks to refute Dr. Driver's conclusions, which are those almost universally accepted by scholars now-a-days. But we would ask her to take our word for it that the linguistic evidence she adduces, so far as it is relevant, has not been left out of account by those who have come to a different conclusion from herself.

2. We feel certain that all students of the Talmud will feel that Dr. Bischoff has laid them under an obligation by his critical history of the translations of the Talmud, at all periods and in all languages. Such a work was needed, according to our author, because the material at one's disposal hitherto is full of errors and omissions, and because an exact knowledge of former attempts at translation is the best foundation for a judgment as to the possibility and the method of a future translation. The work is marked by the conciseness and the exhaustiveness of an expert.

3. (a) The Kurzer Handcommentar continues to make satisfactory progress, quite a number of volumes having been added to the series within the past year. Bertholet, who has contributed more than one commentary to it already, writes well on Leviticus. This book presents, of course, fewer problems for literary criticism than the other books of the Hexateuch, yet there are questions, such as those connected with the Law of Holiness, that demand careful investigation. The ritual again presents such problems as the distinction between the guilt-offering (שנים) and the sinoffering (אממה), and the question of what is the root idea of the conception of "clean" and "unclean". All these, particularly the last, are handled by Bertholet with that fulness of knowledge and that patience which we have learned to expect from one who did so much for Ezekiel, The same thoroughness is displayed in our author's examination of particular words and phrases of a difficult kind; while the commentary proper is a model of conciseness and clearness.

- (b) Benzinger's excellent commentary on Kings will have prepared our readers to expect valuable help from his work on Chronicles. At the outset he defines very happily the character and "tendency" of the Book, which is not a history of Israel but a Church history, a history of the Temple and its cultus. The motives are carefully exhibited which led the Chronicler to omit or add or modify. At the same time we are not to suppose that his methods were peculiar to him. On the contrary, his conception of the course of Israel's history was the prevailing one of his time. While in one sense it is true that the historical value of Chronicles is small, yet we must be on our guard against unduly depreciating it. In addition to the books of Samuel and Kings, the compiler possessed some good sources. This leads Dr. Benzinger to a detailed examination of the question of the particular sources drawn upon by the Chronicler. The date of the compilation is fixed, with most scholars, at about B.C. 300, although, of course, additions were made to the book at a still later date. The condition of the text is then examined. While this is very bad in the genealogical lists, the narrative portions are shown to have often preserved a better text than the parallel passages in Kings. The commentary is an admirable piece of work. But in the bibliography we miss a reference to Dr. F. Brown's admirable art. "Chronicles" in the new Dictionary of the Bible. Surely it was as worthy of mention as A. Klostermann's article in Herzog's P. R. E.
- 4. In view of the growing importance of studies in Jewish Apocalyptic Literature, a hearty welcome will be accorded to Mr. Schiefer's account of the religious and ethical ideas contained in Ezra iv. He finds the leading motive of what may be called *Old Testament* Apocalyptic in a desire to rekindle zeal for the Mosaic Law. This end might be served by haggadistic narratives, psalms, gnomic sayings, or prophetic exhortations. It is characteristic of this literature

that it is pseudepigraphic. The book with which Mr. Schiefer is concerned is fittingly written in the name of Ezra, whom, however, strangely enough and in defiance of chronology, it identifies with Shealtiel (Salathiel), the father of Zerubbabel. The genuine part of the book, namely chapters iii.-xiv. [i., ii., xv., xvi., are later additions], belong to the last decade (90-100) of the first century of the Christian era.

The tractate opens with examining the conception of God found in the book. This leads naturally to such subjects as angelology, and the creation of the world and of man. Man being mortal, the question of a future life and of the destiny of the soul arises. Closely connected with the same is the subject of the Messianic hope. On all these points Mr. Schiefer writes with the full knowledge derived from this and other Apocalypses, and from the copious recent literature that has grown up around them, and he has succeeded in investing with interest every point he discusses.

J. A. SELBIE.

The Earliest Gospel: A Historical Study of the Gospel according to Mark, with a Text and English Version.

By Allan Menzies, M.A., D.D., Professor of Biblical Criticism in the University of St. Andrews. London: Macmillan & Co., Limited; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1901. 8vo, pp. 306. Price 8s. 6d.

This is a scholarly book, written in a lucid, vigorous, and natural style. It consists of an Introduction, a Greek Text, with an English translation on the opposite page, and a Commentary below. The Introduction might with advantage have been longer. The Greek Text is based apparently upon Westcott and Hort and Tischendorf. But Professor Menzies seems inclined to attach considerable weight to the Western Text. The translation into more modern and everyday language than the Authorised and Revised versions is on the whole successful, though such an expression as " Jesus rated him" (i. 25) jars upon the ear, and it is not easy to see the gain of substituting "a stick" for "a staff". The method which Dr. Menzies has adopted of writing his Commentary so that it can be read continuously without the reader being constantly jerked up by fragments of text and detached notes adds to its attractiveness. The book is, in fact, a life of Christ, based upon St. Mark's Gospel, interpreted from a particular standpoint and reconstructed. Among recent contributions of English scholarship to the study of St. Mark's Gospel it has a distinct place of its own. It is not simply an exposition, but a commentary with a definite purpose consistently kept in view throughout. Its aim is to portray "the face of Jesus as He actually was and spoke, strove and suffered, lived and trusted and hoped," which "has been to a large extent hidden from us by the theology which we have inherited" (p. 54). And unless we

have misunderstood Dr. Menzies the theology which has thus obscured the face of Jesus is not simply that of the seventeenth century, or of the fourth century, but that which was already in process of development before Mark's Gospel was written. For even in this earliest Gospel are found clear traces of Pauline ideas and of Pauline phraseology; and other powerful influences of an idealising tendency have been at work as well. The stream of pure tradition began to be contaminated with foreign elements very near its spring, and to recover its purity it needs to be strained through the filter of a narrowly discriminating criticism. He who is bent on getting "back to Christ" must not only get behind Paul and the writer of the Fourth Gospel; he must also get behind Mark and even behind the sources from which Mark drew.

[Dr. Menzies states his position with distinct clearness in the paragraph of his Introduction in which he explains in what sense the Gospels are historical. Starting from the fact that a comparison of Mark's Gospel with those of Matthew and Luke shows, by omissions, modifications of language and additions, a tendency in the latter to exhibit a higher view of the person of Christ, he considers it an inevitable inference that the same tendency has already been at work in Mark and in the traditions, written and oral, upon which he drew. As this is one of the fundamental positions it will be well to let him speak for himself: "That the Gospel tradition operated on real facts and on things actually remembered is capable of proof. We are able to trace in the Gospels the mode of operation of early Christian tradition and to see the direction in which it travels. We do not see the starting-point, but we gather from the later development of what nature the beginning must have been. The tradition always proceeds from what is more concrete to what is more ideal, from the simple and homely to the dignified and majestic, from the less to the more wonderful. The figure of the Saviour is raised more and more above the earth; the story is made always more edifying, more impressive. These phenomena, of the study of which the Synoptic Gospels shows manifold

instances, do not point to the conclusion that the facts on which tradition operated were themselves invented. On the contrary, the facts were often somewhat too real for tradition to use. They did not at first quite suit the purposes of the Christian community, but had to be changed in the unconscious process of transmission before they could be used "(p. 19). And again, with special reference to Mark: "It will be found, I believe, that Mark is historical in the main". But even Mark is very far from being free from this idealising or transfiguring tendency. "His materials were not so sacred and inviolable that he could not touch them up and arrange them so that the light should fall on them in the way he desired. His successors also used this freedom, and in these cases changes were often introduced in the interests of doctrine. They sought to express higher views of the person of Christ than Mark had indicated. Not that the desire to elevate the person of the Saviour is not present in Mark also." Instances are given which "all make in the same direction, and go to surround the figure of Christ with a light brighter than any of this world" (pp. 51, 52).

Accordingly it is the task of the student to detect and remove those accretions which, from a very early time, have gathered round the simple facts; and it is this to which Dr. Menzies applies himself in the Commentary. And the residuum of solid fact which remains after the alien elements have been got rid of by evaporation in the crucible of criticism is substantially as follows. The most obvious characteristic of Mark's Gospel is the prominence it gives to what we are accustomed to call miracles. Now Dr. Menzies does not explicitly deny the possibility of miracles; he tells us he has not used the word, "as it appears to him quite inappropriate to describe the 'powers' Jesus is here described as accomplishing". He disposes of them on lines similar to those which Dr. Abbott has rendered familiar to us in The Kernel and the Husk. The "nature-miracles" vanish under his treatment. For example, in the story of the Stilling of the Storm the nucleus of fact is that Jesus suddenly aroused from sleep by the panic of the disciples showed Himself to be master

of Himself and of the circumstances. Mark, no doubt, he acknowledges, means to represent Jesus as having power over the winds and waves, but that power is not claimed by Jesus Himself; it belongs to the interpretation afterwards put upon His words and demeanour. It is acknowledged that Jesus exercised an extraordinary power over certain cases of hysteria, epilepsy and insanity, in persons regarded as possessed by demons, and that He also cured other diseases, such as fever, paralysis and certain kinds of dumbness and blindness, though in several of these a more accurate medical diagnosis is desiderated. These cures are practically instances of what we now-a-days call "faith-healing". "They are connected with a simple method of practice not unknown in the country"; "the process is quite natural," the method being to induce the patients to co-operate towards their recovery by putting forth some effort. In the case of the Syrophœnician woman's daughter, it is suggested that the mere reputation of Jesus and the knowledge that He was being invoked on her behalf were enough to restore her. Imagination and expectation play a large part in these cases. The healing of the leper, which cannot be brought under the same category, is found very perplexing, and Dr. Menzies, while admitting that the story is meant to tell of an actual cure, inclines to the solution of Paulus, followed by Keim, that the man was not made but only declared clean and fit to be restored to the community.

From the opening sentence of his Gospel we are led to understand that Mark intended to relate the story of Jesus as the Messiah. But in Mark Jesus does not become the Messiah before the conversation with His disciples at Cæsarea Philippi (p. 168). It is true that on two occasions at a very early period in His ministry, at the healing of the paralytic and when He claims to be Lord of the Sabbath, Mark represents Jesus as applying to Himself the title "Son of Man," but these events must have been antedated, as Jesus avoids all Messianic assumptions till close to the end of His life on earth (p. 54). But when He puts the question, "Whom do men say that I am?" a view has been ripening in His mind.

He has resolved to transfer His activity to Jerusalem. "The opposition of the Scribes has brought His work in Galilee almost to a standstill . . . and led Him to think of assuming the Messianic rôle as a means of carrying forward in another way and on another scene the work for which the old methods had done all they could. . . . Jesus' encounter with the Scribes must have convinced Him that the reform of religion . . . would never come about if a bold stroke were not struck for it. . . . Even if death lay in the path along which duty now began to call Him, He must not shrink from it" (p. 168). But He could not play the part of the Messiah of popular expectation. The old view of the Messiah must give place to a new one. The Messiah, He now sees, must suffer and be set at naught before He comes to His kingdom, and so He now gives Himself the title Son of Man as fitted to express the paradox of Messiah's career, as experiencing the dark and sorrowful side of the human lot, suffering, waiting, persecuted, dying (p. 170). It was in connection with this new view of the Messiah and His resolution to take up the part that there arose for the first time in His mind the foreshadowing thought of His death. Accordingly the saying about the days that will come when the bridegroom will be taken away (ii. 20) is also out of its place, and must be assigned to some period after this (p. 87). Dr. Menzies does not seem to feel that when Mark, in relating the first announcement of the Passion, remarks "He spake that saying openly" $(\pi a \rho \rho \eta \sigma i a)$, he almost implies that Jesus had previously dropped veiled hints to the same effect. As to what was to be accomplished by His death—which appeared first as a possibility, then as a probability, and at last as a certainty—He had at first no understanding, but by the time that, in His answer to the ambitious request of James and John, He spake of giving His life as a ransom for many, "He has begun to see in what way His death may be a benefit to others". . . . The death of the Messiah must arrest the rational conscience and bring about a general movement, such as His teaching had failed to produce, towards the kingdom. In this way He might regard His death as a means of blessing to "many," His life as a

ransom for "many," His blood as shed for "many" (pp. 200, 201). He expected that His return would take place and that the kingdom would be visibly erected almost immediately after His death (pp. 202, 203). Hence the saying, "There be some here of those that stand by which shall in no wise taste of death until they see the kingdom of God come with power," postpones it too long. "Jesus, who expected it to come if not before His death at least very shortly after, could not have deferred the coming, as He does here, to a time when most of His disciples should have died, as was evidently the case when this was written "(p. 173). On the resurrection of the body of Jesus it might have been well if, in the Commentary, the author, instead of being content to point out the divergencies between the various accounts, had thought fit to give some reassuring sentences corresponding in tone to the warmth and force with which he speaks in the Introduction of the Risen and Living Lord whose grace and energy are now shed abroad on His people by His Spirit.

The outline we have given is necessarily imperfect, but it has been our endeavour to make it not unfair. We leave the reader to judge of the verisimilitude of the portrait. But one or two reflections of a general character suggest themselves.

First of all, there are in this book numerous indications of a strong tendency to exaggeration. Certain features are unduly magnified and inferences are drawn far more sweeping than the facts require or permit. There is an instance of this in the story of the leper. Into the meaning ἐμβριμησάμενος there is imported an idea of indignation, almost of violence, which the use of the same word in Matt. ix. 30 shows to be quite uncalled for. A more pronounced instance presents itself in the Introduction (p. 52). In Mark "Jesus' cures are achieved with labour and effort, so that it is a question if it is not breaking the Sabbath to do them on that day". The allusion is presumably to the healing of the deaf and dumb man in Decapolis and of the blind man at Bethsaida. It is assumed that the method of operation in these cases was the normal one, though in other cases the details are not given. But even with regard to those the

characterisation is extravagant; and as applied to the three Sabbath cures related by St. Mark, it is more than an exaggeration; it is absolutely baseless. More serious, because more important, is the passage in the Introduction (p. 19), already quoted in full with reference to the increasing tendency, noticeable in the later Gospels as compared with Mark, to idealise, to take higher views of the person of Christ. The impression conveyed by Dr. Menzies' powerful sentences is in excess of what is warranted by the phenomena in question-that is, of course, those that occur in the matter common to all the three Evangelists, in which alone comparison is possible. The phenomena are not all on one side. There are instances in which Mark alone points to the higher view of Jesus, as e.g., in the story of the paralytic where he says that Iesus knew the thoughts of the Scribes $\tau\hat{\omega}$ $\pi\nu\epsilon\hat{\nu}\mu\alpha\tau\iota$ $\alpha\hat{\nu}\tau\hat{\nu}\hat{\nu}$, not by observation or inference, but by His own immediate consciousness (though Dr. Menzies asserts that the Christ of the Second Gospel is not endowed with superhuman insight (p. 52)); and again in the parable of the Wicked Husbandman, where Mark alone records the significant word, "He had yet one Son". With reference to the uniform advance "from the less to the more wonderful," it is Mark, most of all, who gives prominence to the sensation and amazement caused by the wonderful works of Jesus. It is curious that Keim, who believes Mark to be the latest of the Synoptists, fixes on him the blame for the increase of the marvellous. After all, the important question is whether the phenomena referred to are of such a nature as to lead us to distrust the substantial reliableness of these records. Do the later ones leave an impression of Jesus out of harmony with that given in the "Earliest Gospel"? Or do not all three portraits readily blend into one clear stereoscopic picture?

In reflecting upon the presentation of Jesus in this book we are more and more impressed with the feeling that the cause is not adequate to the effect. This Christ could not have produced Christendom. He could not have evoked the strong emotions of faith and hope and love which throbbed

in the pulse of the Apostolic Church, and which have been the inspiration of Christian lives from that day to this. We can comprehend that the Jesus of the Evangelists became the Christ of the Epistles, but between this and that there seems to be an impassable gulf. The two appear to be unrelated, and the author seems to have some sort of consciousness of this. He thinks there is the same want of relation between the Christ of the Gospels and of the Epistles and refers with approval to a remark of Von Soden, that "the two sets of writings belong as it were to different worlds, different atmospheres of thought, and it is evident to the unprejudiced eye that the two are independent of each other" (p. 11). But the leading work of the Church in instruction and edification would not at the period necessarily find a place in its literature, and it is inconceivable that men could believe in the heavenly Lord without immediately becoming eager to learn how He had revealed Himself in the deeds and words of His earthly career. Their deep religious affections could not rest permanently on an unknown Being. Dr. Menzies interprets St. Paul's saying about not knowing Christ after the flesh as if he meant that the story of His earthly career was wholly irrelevant to the truth of the Gospel. "The only Christ whom he cared to know was not Christ in Galilee but Christ crucified." Such is not the impression left on us by his Epistles. In them he appears as one whose mind and heart are so steeped in the knowledge of Christ that more than any other writer of the New Testament, he is deeply imbued with the spirit of that life, and, though he had passed from earth before even the Earliest Gospel was written, the Christ whose character and moral ideal he reflects is essentially the same as that of the first three Evangelists.

A. O. JOHNSTONE.

Die Quellen der canonischen Kindheitsgeschichte Jesus.

Ein wissenschaftlicher Versuch von Ludwig Conrady. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht. 8vo, pp. 342. Price M.8.

IF pains and learning entitle an investigator to call his work scientific, the claim need not be denied to the treatise before us. The methods and processes of the author, however, are largely those of pure subjectivity, and his results require an unusual number of assumptions to give them even the appearance of probability. He cannot be surprised if he does not succeed in convincing his readers of the truth of his contention, for he intimates at the outset that he is setting himself in opposition not only to the tradition of nearly eighteen centuries but also to the entire body of theological opinion of the present day. In his investigation of the Canonical History of the Infancy of Jesus, our author has an eminent predecessor in Dr. A. Resch, whose Agrapha, or Extracanonical Gospel Fragments, started a new theory of the origin of the Gospels, and whose later Kindheits-Evangelium covers much of the ground occupied by the present investigation. Resch's elaborate attempt to reconstruct the gospel of the Infancy was not, our author tells us, the occasion of this treatise, the first sketch of which was completed before Resch's Kindheits-Evangelium appeared. But the finished treatise makes a large use of Resch's materials, turning the weapons obtained from his armoury for the most part against himself.

Our author sets himself in the first place to show that the narratives of the Infancy of Jesus in the first and the third Gospels, differing though they do in substance and in form, are derived from one source and take the form in which we now possess them from the purpose each Evangelist has in view; for both Gospels are regarded as tendency-writings.

contention is interesting, but fanciful in the extreme. Having satisfied himself that neither the first nor the third Evangelist is an original and independent authority, but that each derives his materials from one and the same documentary source, he finds that source in the Protevangelium Facobi, recovered from its long oblivion by Postel in the sixteenth century and by him brought to Europe. Our author quotes with approval Postel's enthusiastic description of it as gemmam inter libros theologicos et basin atque fundamentum totius historiae Evangelicae et caput Evangelii Secundum Marcum. That the Protevangel is as early as the middle of the second century is admitted by Zahn and other authorities. But when our author insists that the first Evangelist in recording the incidents of the Infancy simply epitomized the Protevangel and that the third Evangelist obtained the story of the dumbness of Zacharias, of the Annunciation, of the visit of Mary to Elizabeth, of the Taxing, and of the Presentation in the Temple from the references to those incidents, he separates himself from the great mass of modern critical opinion and completely inverts the relations between the Canonical and the Apocryphal Gospels. It requires but little critical judgment to see from the parallel columns in which he exhibits the Protevangelic and the Canonical narratives, that instead of our Evangelists borrowing from the Protevangelist, he borrowed from them. This is the view taken, at least, by critics of all schools. The Protevangel and its kindred narratives, the Gospel of Thomas, the Gospel of Nicodemus, and others, bear upon the face of them the marks of secondary origin, and have quite a different air and purpose from our Canonical Gospels. A perusal of Tischendorf's Evangelia Apocrypha carries home that conviction with irresistible force. Protevangel instead of being the source of the Gospel narratives of the Infancy is, as Zahn points out, "a compilation from them, in so far as it is not pure fiction". Our author has difficulty with the visit of the boy Jesus to the Temple at Jerusalem, which is not found in the Protevangel though the germ of it might be found in the freaks of childish

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omnipotence ascribed to the Infant Jesus in the Gospel of Thomas. The flowing Greek of Luke's narrative suggests to our author that Luke in treating of this incident has just taken more than usual liberty with his source!

To support his theory he proceeds to discuss the references to the narratives of the Infancy in early Christian literature. It is here that Resch's collection of passages is of such service. Quotations are given in convenient form from Ignatius, the Testament of the Twelve Patriarchs, Aristides, Basilides, Irenaeus and later literature, and references at greater length are examined from Justin Martyr, Celsus and Epiphanius, which are claimed as showing with a measure of certainty that these authors were acquainted with the Protevangelium. It is true that Ignatius mentions a star of surpassing size before which the light of the other stars grew pale; that Justin Martyr speaks of the birth of Christ as taking place in a cave; that Clement of Alexandria refers to the perpetual Virginity of Mary; all of which particulars and others less notable are to be found in the Protevangelium and not, in those precise terms at least, in the Canonical Gospels. But this does not help the theory advocated in the present treatise; oral tradition might well carry down such a particular as the cave for the birth of Jesus. Exaggerations of simple facts narrated in the Gospels would soon grow up and obtain circulation in Apocryphal works and in the writings of the early Fathers. And such exaggerations form a considerable part of the literary stock of Apocryphal writers. To refer to the reference to Ignatius alone: it is surely vastly less probable that a writer of his striking originality and proved acquaintance with the great Gospel facts and mysteries, should borrow from a florid narrative like the Protevangelium than that the Protevangelist should borrow from him. Besides, if our author's contention that the Protevangelium was a production of the time of Hadrian is correct, it was impossible for Ignatius to quote or refer to it, since he by the consent of all critical authorities suffered martyrdom several years before in the time of Trajan.

Having claimed independence and priority for the Prot-

evangelium, our author enters upon a learned discussion of the characteristics of the source itself, gathering from the Hebraisms with which the Greek Text abounds that it was written in Hebrew and afterwards translated into Greek. In asserting its Egyptian origin he brings to bear upon his task a great amount of curious learning, connecting the narratives of the Infancy in the most fanciful and extravagant way with the Isis and Osiris myth, and notably with an Isis worship which he thinks had once been set up at Jerusalem and Bethlehem. The author of the Protevangelium he takes to be an Egyptian of Alexandria, who has come out of heathenism into the Christian Church by way of the synagogue and so possesses the Hebrew learning the book exhibits. It is not so easy to say what countryman the translator was, but he too was likely an Egyptian trained in the schools of Alexandria where he carried through his translation and gave the book a wider fame.

The acceptance of this theory would mean a complete revolution in our views of the Canon and of the origins of Christianity. But the author fails entirely in our judgment to make out his thesis. It was an impossible task to which he set himself. It would have been a literary miracle if the opening chapters of St. Matthew and St. Luke, with their lifelike touches and tender humanities, had been derived from a work teeming with superstitious trivialities. The author of this book, with all his ingenuity, has not succeeded in displacing them from their position of independence and priority; and we cannot say that he has even offered us help to the solution of any of the problems which the narratives of the Infancy present.

THOMAS NICOL.

Antilegomena.

Die Reste der ausserkanonischen Evangelien und urchristlichen Ueberlieferungen herausgegeben und übersetzt von Erwin Preuschen. Giessen: Ricker; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. vi. + 175. Price 3s. net.

THIS is a most useful collection of fragments of extra canonical Gospels, and early traditions akin thereto. It is also issued at a moderate price, which should place it within the reach of all. Previous collections, with the single exception of Nestle's Supplementum, which is too brief, have been beyond the reach of many, because they were buried in lengthy works such as Hilgenfeld's Novum Testamentum extra Canonem receptum, or Zahn's History of the Canon of the New Testament. Nor has anything yet appeared at once so complete and so succinct as Preuschen's work. There are. indeed, still a few more fragments which one might be glad to see incorporated, but these are not Greek fragments, but survive either in Coptic, or in some translation of Greek ecclesiastical writers. In particular one would like to see all Coptic fragments of the Gospel included. A new volume of the Berlin edition of the Christian writers of the first three centuries is, I believe, to contain a complete collection of early Coptic fragments, but those which throw light on the early history of the Gospels might very well be included in such a work as this.

I may mention two: (1) Schmidt's revised translation in the Gottingensche Gelehrte Anzeigen, June, 1900, of Jacoby's "Ein neues Evangelienfragment," and (2) another fragment translated by the same Coptic scholar, and published by Harnack, "Ein jüngst entdecker Auferstehungsbericht".

Similarly, translations of pertinent passages from early authors, which have survived in translations only, would be valuable: for an example see Hippolytus' "Commentary on the Song of Songs," a Slavonic version of which has survived and is translated into German in the new Berlin edition. The reader will find on p. 351 ff. a remarkable running quotation of the story of the Resurrection from some early Gospel, possibly from the original Logia of St. Matthew.

Then, too, there would be such fragments of the Diatessaron as do not occur in our Gospels. These might have been a useful addition.

But, to come to the matter actually incorporated, though I believe no Greek fragments of Gospels, which have as yet come to light, are omitted, there are a few omissions of traditions of importance.

To begin with Origen: such passages as the Contra Celsum, i., 46, and i., 68, might have been added. I will give an English translation, so as to be intelligible to all readers: In i., 46, we read about the miracles as follows: "The marvellous works done by Jesus, Celsus slanderously asserts that he effected by means of the occult knowledge which he had acquired amongst the Egyptians". I believe this passage to be important, because there is actually in existence, as I hope to show elsewhere, a Gnostic edition of St. John's Gospel which ascribes the miracles to the secret "gnosis" acquired by Christ in an Egyptian temple. The other passage (i., 68) is a contemptuous and futile attempt to explain away Christ's miracles. "He compares them to the works of mountebanks, with their vaunted wonders, and to the rites of those who have been initiated into occult science by the Egyptians, men who, for a few obols, vend their awful mysteries in mid-marketplace, and expel demons from people, and dissipate diseases, and call up the souls of heroes, and display costly feasts and tables with confectionaries and dainties which are purely imaginary, and cause what are apparently animals to move, which are not really animals, but only appear such to the imagination."

In the passages from Epiphanius relative to the Ebionite Gospel (p. 9) a brief reference is given in the first quoted fragment to the story of the discovery of a Hebrew transla-

tion of the fourth Gospel, but the author should certainly have added the sequel in *Heresy*, xxx., 6, which relates how a certain Josephus, at that time half-inclined to become a Christian, was somewhat staggered by his discovery of this document in the muniment room of the patriarch of the Jewish sect to which he belonged. This curious sect was under the direction of a hereditary patriarch and an elect body called Apostles. It was in the patriarch's house that Josephus, at that time an apostle in this sect, discovered what Epiphanius describes as some priceless documents.

"And as he read therein he found the Gospel according to John translated into the Hebrew tongue, and the Acts of the Apostles. And, moreover, having read, from amongst these documents, the Hebrew genealogy according to Matthew, he was again harassed in mind, being somewhat perturbed concerning the faith of Christ,"

It would appear from this remarkable passage that both the text of the Fourth Gospel, and the genealogy prefixed to St. Matthew's Gospel, which Josephus thus discovered, differed in a surprising manner from those at that time generally current in the Church. This story was related to Epiphanius by Josephus himself. Can it be that the genealogy was somewhat of the same type as that of the Lewis Syriac text of the Gospels, and that the Fourth Gospel was the Johannine portion (if such existed) of the Hebrew Logia, which is upposed to be one of the sources of our Gospels?

Another important passage from Epiphanius, which might have been included, is *Heresy*, xxviii., 5, where it is said of Cerinthus and his sect, "For they use the Gospel according to Matthew in part, but not the whole of it: but because of the genealogy (of the Lord) according to the flesh, they use this too from the Gospel"; and again in *Heresy*, xxx., 14, we read as follows: "For Cerinthus and Carpocras . . . from the beginning of the Gospel according to Matthew, wish to prove by means of the genealogy that Christ was of the seed of Joseph and Mary. But these (the Ebionites) are otherwise minded. For they cut out the genealogies in Matthew."

From these passages it would appear that there were two recensions of St. Matthew's Gospel current amongst the

Cerinthians and Ebionites respectively, the latter being without the genealogy, while the former had it indeed, but in such a form as to make it possible to attempt to prove from it that Christ was the son of Joseph and Mary. This again would point to a form of text akin to the Lewis Syriac.

Apart from these books in Epiphanius and Origen, some at any rate of which the author may see fit to include in a later edition, I have observed no omissions of any importance, and the book is a welcome addition to the literature of the subject.

J. H. WILKINSON.

The Ministry of Grace.

By John Wordsworth, Bishop of Salisbury. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1901. 8vo, pp. xxiv. + 486. 12s. 6d. net.

THE scope of this learned and genially written work is given in its sub-title, "Studies in Early Church History, with reference to present problems". As regards the first part of this description, it is more nearly defined as "a summary account of Church organisation, as well as of the early history of the most prominent Christian rites". The meaning of its latter part is hinted in the following sentence: "We need criticism of the past as well as exhibition of the past: and we need to sift what is really Catholic and permanent in organisation and rites, with more discrimination than has often been used among us, from what is local and transitory". Few will need to be told that in the bishop's hands this leads up to the familiar moral that Anglicanism presents, in fact, the desideratum, "what is really Catholic and permanent," freed by Divine Providence from the "local and transitory" accretions of other parts of the Church, Eastern and Western. In relation to these "our ideal is not to absorb but to leaven: to penetrate with healthy life, not to lord it over God's heritage". Difficult as it is to make this position, even in a moderate form, seem really modest, especially in relation to those communions which share the same general atmosphere of Christian enlightenment enjoyed by Anglicans, Bishop Wordsworth perhaps comes as near to it as may be. Further, by Anglicanism he understands the views of "the solid and sober central party of the Anglican Church," which he wishes both his historical findings and his practical deductions to be taken to represent. And one can but cordially hope that views as sober and sensible as his may more and more prevail among his fellow-Churchmen, on such topics as Fasting, Communion, Reservation, Incense, Clerical Celibacy, Women's Work and the idea of perpetual vows in connection therewith. On each of these many wise things are said to which we would direct attention, though space forbids quotation where yet weightier matters of principle call for comment.

His opening remarks on "different views of Church History," show once more how native to the mind of those who style themselves "Catholics" is the belief that they alone have adequate vision of "the glorious Church of God," to use the phrase of the truly Catholic dedication of this book. Thus after saying that Dr. Hatch's aim was "to show the plasticity of Christian institutions, to explain their origin and growth on philosophic principles, and to invite leaders of Christian thought and life to courageous action in dealing with them in the future," Dr. Wordsworth speaks deprecatingly of this attitude, as if it involved blindness to what he calls the "personal" and the "traditional" views of Church History, and had its roots in a poor and unspiritual ideal of the Church as the divinely appointed medium for "the coming of God's Kingdom in its perfect beauty". It does not seem to occur to him that it might be the very largeness and adequacy of Dr. Hatch's idea of the Church, as conceived by its Founder and no one less, that led him in view of the "ecclesiastical" and human "notes" by which the Tractarians had circumscribed its scope and sway, to emphasise God's truly "Catholic" working out of His Kingdom among men. This is curious enough in its way. But the bishop's attribution to his fellow-Churchman of a one-sidedness which he himself disclaimed, seems the more uncalled for when one reads that his own book "is an attempt to give a reasonable account of the institutions and customs of which it treats; i.e., to show how they arose, and with what principles their origin and development were connected " (p. vi.). Thus both recognise the Divine behind and in the human factors, of whose relations a "reasonable" or "philosophic" account is essayed. Why, then, should the one claim for himself a fulness of religious interest and vision which he denies to the other? Indeed, when actually at work, without arrière pensée, he deals with his data much as Dr. Hatch dealt a decade or two before, save that he uses "primitive" in a looser way, and that at certain crucial points elements slip in unknown to history proper, as when he asserts "the persistence" of the Charismatic ministry as a "reserve force" latent in the Episcopate—a pure theologoumenon.

It is an ungrateful duty to notice such lapses from objectivity of treatment occurring here and there throughout this book: but it is the more necessary on account of the very excellence marking many of its special discussions, and of the rich and varied material brought together in the volume without sacrifice of order. Its arrangement is as follows. The lengthy Introduction, beginning with the true idea of Church History and briefly characterising the chief workers in the special field under consideration-Hooker, Bingham, Pelliccia and Duchesne-consists mainly of a Survey of the ancient literature, subdivided into Church Orders, Kalendars of Festivals, and Liturgical Books. This is an admirable piece of work, learned, lucid, critical, though its references to the Didaché are rather vague and unsatisfying, while the grounds given for denying to Hippolytus the authorship of the Canons that bear his name seem hardly conclusive. The body of the work consists of eight "Studies," the headings of which are :-

I. Development of the Monarchical Episcopate—more rapid in the East, slower in Rome and Alexandria.

II. Bishops, Presbyters and Deacons (the first half of the third century being treated as a determinative period).

III. The Minor Orders (Sub-deacons, Acolytes, Exorcists, Readers, etc.); to which is appended a sketch of psalmody and the growth of instrumental music in worship.

IV. Christian Asceticism and the Celibacy of the Clergy (the fusion and confusion of the two being carefully traced, and the evil influence of the West, of Rome in particular, being brought out).

V. Women's Work: Widows, Deaconesses, Virgins (in which attention is directed to the higher estimate of women's ministry in the East, seen specially in the Apostolic Church Order and the Testament of our Lord—both probably Asian in origin).

VI. The Christian Day and the Christian Week: Sunday, Wednesday and Friday, Saturday; Daily Eucharist and Daily Offices (daily public prayers are traced to the fourth century, and to Jerusalem as source).

VII. Development of Church Festivals: Easter, Lent and Pentecost.

VIII. Later Festivals: especially Christmas and Epiphany. This chapter concludes with suggestions for a reform of the Anglican Kalendar, with a view at once to secure greater Catholicity and to foster regard for national and diocesan worthies of the faith. A tentative Kalendar on these lines follows, which whilst obviously meant to be generously inclusive, serves rather to bring out the radical arbitrariness of the Anglo-Catholic conception. The bishop hopes to enable his fellow-Churchmen "to realise a little more fully the breadth of the Communion of Saints as to time and place and character". To this end he inserts Bernard Gilpin, Parson of Houghton-le-Spring, 1583, while he omits Richard Baxter and John Wesley; commemorates Thomas Bray, one of the founders of the S.P.C.K. and S.P.G., 1730, but not William Carey or David Livingstone; and reckons as saints of Christ, Dante and Charles I., but not Milton or Cromwell. If such a Kalendar does not help to destroy the sense of proportion in Anglican Churchmen, they must possess an enviable faculty of doing justice to saintliness to which the title is formally denied. For our own part, we are not sure that we would not prefer to be nurtured on the Positivist Kalendar, which seems to set rather more store by Christ's own test of saintship, viz., fruits of character, and surely Catholicity should be measured by Christlikeness. Even what seems at first sight a gleam of fresh Christian insight in this Kalendar, but serves to bring out the formal bias warping the mind of its author, otherwise so zealous for the

religion of the Spirit rather than of traditional forms. Under 26th January, we read "C. G. Gordon at Khartum, 1885". But, then, Gordon was an Episcopal communicant. How Gordon himself would have regarded his inclusion, on such terms, in a Kalendar so conspicuous for its exclusion of men he would have hailed as saints indeed, we leave the bishop and others to judge.

It is not irrelevant to dwell at length, even in a short review, upon this matter. For it brings to full light the tendency, latent but influential, which hinders some of the discussions from attaining the dignity of "history" in contrast to "tradition," to use the author's own distinction. That tendency is the desire to uphold the statement in the Anglican Ordinal, natural enough when first made, but now belied by known facts, that "from the Apostles' time there have been these Orders of Ministers in Christ's Church: Bishops, Priests and Deacons". Even Lightfoot's investigations were warped as regards their general effect by this sixteenth century historical opinion, become nineteenth century dogma; in that he, in defending himself against the suspicion of having cut the ground from below the jus divinum theory of Episcopacy, alleged that the result of his famous essay "had been a confirmation of the statement in the English Ordinal". This, of course, was to take its language in a sense different from that in which it was originally used and had been habitually understood. For Lightfoot shows that it was only in parts of Christendom "where an oriental spirit predominated, as at Jerusalem and Antioch and Ephesus," that evidence, and this largely inferential, pointed to the overlapping of any sort of monarchical episcopacy with the lifetime of "the latest surviving Apostles, more especially St. John". "Where the prevailing influences were more purely Greek, as at Corinth and Philippi and Rome "-Alexandria, too, as he himself tends to show—the development of this office out of the presbytery cannot be so traced to Apostolic action or sanction. That such "confirmation" was really fatal to exclusive claims, the sure "Catholic" instinct of a Dr. Moberly could not but feel, though his attempt at historical refutation may be put aside the more decisively that its ingenious idealism is left severely alone by a patristic expert like Dr. Wordsworth, whose sympathies are all in a like direction. Nay, more, the latter has quite established, as against Dr. Gore, the one really formidable apologist on that side, the principle of "ordination from beneath"—to employ the somewhat unhappy polemical phrase favoured by Dr. Gore and others. For he has fairly closed the controversy about the nomination and ordination of their own bishop by the Alexandrine presbyters, down to the middle of the third century, as alleged by Lightfoot and Hatch.1 But he has gone even further than Lightfoot in showing that the single bishop is but a presbyter made primus inter pares for certain practical uses, when he argues that to Clement of Alexandria the ministry consisted essentially of two (not three) orders, and thus that he identifies the two titles in the story of St. John and the young robber-one of Lightfoot's proofs that monarchical episcopate had the direct authority of the aged Apostle.

We submit, then, that the bishop's conclusion, that the episcopacy proper "was everywhere accepted in the Church some time before the end of the third century" (p. 178), does not justify, but rather precludes, acceptance "without reserve" of the theory of the Ordinal; that it virtually destroys the "Catholic" theory of Apostolical succession through bishops; and makes refusal to recognise presbyterian orders-whether in so-called Presbyterian, or Methodist, or even certain Congregational churches-a schismatical judgment, unwarrantably dividing true branches of the Church of Christ and His Apostles. This may be said without prejudice to the question of the supernatural grace of orders, which our author assumes but hardly attempts to prove, unless one can allow in this weighty instance that "supersession of broad Scriptural teaching by single-text expositions" which he himself deprecates. For the texts touching Timothy's "gift," determined by laying on of hands (whether of Paul or the presbytery),

¹He also justifies Hatch, against Gore and Rackham, touching the reading and sense of the thirteenth Canon of Ancyra (A.D. 314), as to the ability of city presbyters to ordain presbyters or deacons.

constitute, as interpretated by "Catholic" theology without regard to the part played by "prophecy," something unique in the literature of primitive Christianity—at least, if we do not play fast and loose with the term "primitive" by making it cover ante-Nicene phenomena promiscuously, e.g., views without witness for a century or more from the Church's foundation. The idea of sacramental grace conveyed by ordination has no support prior to Irenæus; and even the gift of grace he claims for the leading officers,2 not necessarily bishops, is not sacramental but personal, safe-guarding them as teachers of apostolic truth. This theory, apparently constructed a priori, to meet a felt need amid the dangers of gnostic speculations (cf. Cyprian's view that bishops "have the right to expect special inspiration," p. 150), has the same value as our author's own statement that he "cannot doubt" that such claims "represent a true function of the Episcopal order, to be the depositories of a reserve of power on which the Church may rely in times of difficulty and danger". That is, each is the "pious opinion" of a devout man, which men equally devout reject as arrogating to officials the prerogative which, so far as it belongs to the Church at all, the analogy of faith leads us to view as residing in the general Christian consciousness of Christ's disciples as His Body, and not as delegated to any in trust for the whole. Indeed, this is what our author's language implies when he is off his guard. Thus he describes the original Charismatic ministry of Apostles, Prophets, Teachers, as "a transitory gift, destined to pass away when the body of the saints or faithful Christians was sufficiently prepared and instructed to take its place. . . . When the Christian body is sufficiently penetrated by the Holy Spirit to choose its own officers and representatives, and when the sense of duty towards the confederation of Christian Churches has become a settled habit, then the Charismatic ministry gradually passes away. But it remains in the

 $^{^{1}}$ (Χάρισμα) δ έδόθη σοι διὰ προφητείας μετὰ ἐπιθέσεως τῶν χειρῶν τοῦ πρεσβυτερίου, τ Tim. iv. 14, cf. 2 Tim. i. 6.

²They are presbyteri cum episcopatus successione or cum presbyterii ordine, Adv. Hær. IV., xl., 2; xli., 1, ed. Harvey.

background as a possibility, which may emerge at any time into activity: and indeed in various forms it is constantly emerging." And then he quietly assumes that, when it reemerges, it will depart from its old free mode of action—the Spirit choosing whom He will, apart from office or orders (as in the Prophets and Teachers of the Didaché, for instance)—and will be tied to the Episcopal order, which originally had nothing to do with the higher Charismata of insight (148 ff.). It is the old story. The theory of "apostolical succession" ever disqualifies its holders (witness Dr. Moberly, and in a lesser degree Dr. Gore) from dealing fairly with the Charismatic or spontaneously inspired ministry of primitive Christianity. A ministry independent of orders cannot be made the genuine parent of a ministry dependent for its powers on orders, without changing its nature and laws altogether. Accordingly in their hands it either ceases to be Charismatic, or is belittled into an originally secondary or non-essential element in the Gospel of which it was by its first preacher hailed as the distinctive token. And such has it been in most revivals of that Gospel, the free gifts of the Spirit making orders recede again into their proper and secondary place—witness Augustine, St. Francis, Savonarola, Luther, Wesley. Indeed, high "Charisma" and episcopal office have seldom been related, save as cause and effect.

But consistency of view throughout is not to be sought in this book. Its author's spirit is far too religious to admit of this, on the artificial and external premises he holds for Catholic. His religion is catholic, if his ecclesiology is sectional. He is sure "that identity of faith with that of the primitive Church is far more important than identity of custom, except in regard to the fundamental institutions already referred to" (viii.). These "may be traced to the old general Charismatic Ministry," and are, the "one Bible everywhere received in the Church, one Creed, one weekly holy day, one Baptism, and one Eucharist". Here Episcopacy, as he understands it, is not included as a fundamental institution—as it cannot be on strictly historical principles. There was simply "a general tendency," after the Charismatic age, "to a monarchical regimen," which

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was "not everywhere set up in exactly the same form or at the same date". "Episcopacy," then, "is perhaps the highest instance of a Church institution in regard to which history teaches us that variation is tolerable. But there are many instances." 1 Yet of the possibility of toleration, within the unity of the Church, of other types of Episcopacy than that which developed alongside so many variations of the third and fourth centuries-variations upon primitive practice often regrettable in our author's eye-no hint is given to cheer those who hold the "fundamental institutions" he names, but have an Episcopate of a more primitive type than the Anglican (nearer to the Ignatian or the Irenæan Episcopate, as the case may be). This is the cul de sac to which a leading representative of the "Reunion" movement in the Anglican Church conducts us. One sighs for more of "Irenæus' good sense," instead of "Victor's roughness," to use Dr. Wordsworth's own language touching the Paschal controversy, when amiable Anglicans excommunicate Churches on the ground of differences in the form of the Episcopate, or localised pastorate, which (to adapt Irenæus' words) only "establish the unity" of the underlying idea the more impressively. Surely Canon Henson's appeal is timely—in logic, as in love.

Bishop Wordsworth's weapons of precision leave the old Catholic fortress, as reared by the Tractarians, in a sadly disintegrated state. Few distinctively "Catholic" elements stand the ante-Nicene test, fewer still the pre-Irenæan, none at all the searching "first century" criterion. Development, expediency, correspondence with a local, a relative, a changeful environment of human needs or at least demands, these "give a reasonable account," an all too reasonable and disillusioning account, of things Catholicism has bowed to as of divine institution and authority. As a criticism of Roman innovations, shown often to be borrowed from other quarters, the book is most effective. But it is no less a

¹ Of these, indeed, every one of his "Studies" supplies striking examples, in East and West, in the several national or racial units called "Churches" in the wider sense—Syrian, Egyptian, African, Spanish, Gallican—and in each of these at different stages in its history, the fourth century being the great age of innovaton all round.

powerful apologia for Church polities yet simpler, and, in relation to primitive simplicity, yet purer than the author's own. Would that its author could see in it the basis of a true Eirenicon, in which all English-speaking Churches should cease making their own distinctive principle of polity the conditio sine qua non of communion and growing co-operation. But of this problem, involving the relation of Anglicanism to a majority of Christian communicants under the same Crown, and to the vast majority of those of the same speech and blood, these addresses to the clergy, amid so many references to practical applications, say nothing; but only by implication refuse any churchly recognition. Their glance rests rather on the distant and largely alien Churches of the East. And why? They are "Catholic," because Episcopal. It is most discouraging to find it so in one who has at times shown himself alive to the more living issues at home. And it is the more to be regretted that the discussions of the book, as distinct from passing allusions to an assumed theory of exclusive "apostolical succession" which the trend of its argument undermines rather than supports, appear to open the way to what is never even considered—home inter-communion. There is a silence that is culpable. And in view of the issues of Christian charity involved in the denial of inter-communion to non-episcopal Churches, it is the moral duty, in the highest religious sense, of every Anglican to justify by cogent proof the schism-creating dogma on which he acts. But where shall one find a statement of reasons at all commensurate in certainty, even in the judgment of Anglican scholarship at large, to the gravity of the practical effect of such a dogma? We hope at least that Dr. Wordsworth will essay such a statement in the second series of "Studies" which he here promises, or that he will frankly admit that it cannot be made, and will act on the admission by surrendering a tradition which cannot be justified at the bar of Christ, because like so many other traditions it is found to have no sure root in "broad Scriptural teaching" and Apostolic usage.

VERNON BARTLET.

A Critical and Exegetical Commentary on the Epistles of St. Peter and St. Jude.

By the Rev. Charles Bigg, D.D., Rector of Fenny Compton, Canon of Christ Church, and Regius Professor of Ecclesiastical History in the University of Oxford. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1901. 8vo, pp. ix. + 353. Price 10s. 6d.

This is the latest addition to the *International Critical Commentary*. It is the work of one who has distinguished himself in other departments of theological scholarship considerably different from this, and whose tastes and capacities seemed to lie in these rather than in exegetical studies. In this volume he shows he can also do efficient work as an interpreter of the Greek New Testament. He has produced a book which has some important and distinctive features that make it a valuable addition to our Commentaries on the Epistles of Peter and Jude.

The work has a character of its own, and is more than usually independent in its method of exposition. It has some obvious limitations. The range of reading of which it gives evidence is not particularly wide. At many points we miss any indication of acquaintance with books which might reasonably have been expected to come within the writer's purview. In matters of grammar it is inferior to various Commentaries that might be mentioned. Neither is it very strong in the department of Textual Criticism. It deals with all such questions in a large and general way, which reminds us sometimes of Dean Stanley's habit, and sometimes of Dr. Benjamin Jowett's. It is shy of much that reckons for scientific precision, and shows little of the grammarian's careful regard to the finer points. But we have a compensation for this in the general vigour of the book, the strong and original way in which most things are handled, the broad and liberal spirit which distinguishes it, the insight which it shows into the circumstances to which the Epistles are addressed, its grasp of the purport of the message of each, and, generally speaking, its hold on the historical situation. Nor must we omit to mention the vein of strong, sensible, and entirely independent criticism that runs through it. The most refreshing as well as remunerating thing in the book is its candid analysis of the character and pretensions of certain speculations on the New Testament writings which are much in favour. Dr. Bigg has a delightful way of getting to close quarters with the pleasing, popular hypotheses and novel readings of the history, which are started from time to time by clever writers. He exposes with a strong and steady hand the slenderness of the foundations on which many such things are built up.

The introductory essays are of great interest. The question of the relation in which I Peter stands to the other books of the New Testament is ably handled. Dr. Bigg regards the ordinary view of the connexion between that writing and the Epistle to the Ephesians as an exaggeration. He points out very properly how many notable words and striking thoughts meet us in Ephesians of which I Peter shows no trace, and how great the possibility is that not a few of the alleged similarities may be nothing more than ideas and forms of expression that were in general use. Even in the case of the Epistle to the Romans, the resemblances, he thinks, are as a general rule superficial, and only such as might attach to "current commonplaces". He makes too little, however, as it seems to us, of resemblances of a somewhat different kind, e.g., those between Rom. ix. 33, and I Peter ii. 6, 7; Rom. xii. I, and I Peter ii. 5; Rom. xiii. I, and I Peter iii. 13-15. We entirely sympathise with him at the same time in enlarging, as he does, on the general independence of I Peter. Between I Peter and Titus, indeed, and again between I Peter and Hebrews, he discovers a deeper and more intimate affinity. And in this we venture to think he exaggerates somewhat in the other direction. But he is clearly of

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opinion that the strongest of the resemblances that can be made out between I Peter and other New Testament books, and the whole evidence that can be drawn from style, vocabulary and phraseology, are in themselves quite insufficient to establish the date of the Epistle.

Dr. Bigg looks, therefore, at the historical references in the Epistle, and he does this with a keen eye. He goes into a searching examination of the various allusions to suffering and persecution in the New Testament writings, and compares with these the similar language used in I Peter. He points out that there is but one passage (iv. 15, 16) that can with any show of reason be thought to go beyond others, and to indicate not (as is the case in other passages) a suffering short of death, but the penalty of death by legal process. But he regards this passage as ambiguous. He dissents entirely from Professor Ramsay's view that State persecution is referred to in I Peter, and persecution indeed in a later and more formidable stage. Professor Ramsay's argument in support of his contention that Christians were first punished on account of certain crimes of which they were popularly supposed to be guilty; that between A.D. 75. and 80, under the Flavian Emperors, a new form of process was introduced; and that Christians then were condemned propter nomen ipsum, is pronounced baseless. Dr. Bigg's view of the case is that there is really no historical evidence to bear out the assertion of such a change in the form of procedure; that Professor Ramsay's argument in point of fact is taken "almost entirely" from the words of the Epistle itself; that Pliny's dispatch throughout is "as silly and helpless a production as was ever penned"; and that Trajan's reply was a rebuke. Surveying the whole case, and looking not only to Trajan's rescript, but to the terms in which Tacitus speaks of the Neronian persecution (Annals, xv., 44), as also to the language of the Apocalypse and the Epistle to the Hebrews, Dr. Bigg comes to the conclusion that T Peter must precede all these; that at the time of its composition "Babylon had not yet unmasked all its terrors and the ordinary Christian was not in immediate danger of the tunica ardens, or the red-hot iron chair, or the wild beasts, or the stake". In much of this we agree with him. Even those whose inclination goes the other way will find it difficult to gainsay the argument.

With respect to the place of writing, Dr. Bigg finds the arguments in favour of the Assyrian Babylon and those in support of the Egyptian Babylon inadequate, and thinks we must take refuge in the third supposition-Rome. It is somewhat curious that, while he accepts on the whole the metaphorical sense of "Babylon," he is not disposed to recognise another metaphor in the same verse, but pleads for the literal sense of the συνεκλεκτή. That phrase is not best rendered, as he judges, by "the fellow-elect Church". It may well be, "She who is fellow-elect," that is to say, Peter's wife, the sister-wife whom the Apostle led about, and who, as he puts it, "must have been a well-known and well-loved personage in many places". As to the authorship, the explanation which seems to Dr. Bigg best to meet the case is, that the ideas of the Epistle are Peter's, but that they were committed to writing by a draughtsman, the words, therefore, being to a large extent the latter's. He combats Harnack's position, however, that the Epistle cannot be the work of Peter by reason of its Paulinism, its impersonality, and the vagueness of its references to the Gospels, and that the address and the closing verses must be pronounced unauthentic. He points out that there is nothing in the Epistle that can be called distinctive of Paul, nothing that is Pauline save in the sense in which Pauline and Christian are one and the same thing; and that the references to the Gospels amount to more than Harnack acknowledges. And with reason he asks why should a forger, if one has been at work here, make difficulties for himself instead of reducing the things that might seem to stand in his way. "Why, then, should any one," he pertinently puts it, "writing as late as A.D. 160, with the Pauline Epistles, if not the Book of Acts, before him, have pitched upon Silvanus and Mark, of all people in the world, as likely to be in attendance upon St. Peter?"

The difficult passages in the exegesis of the Epistle are

handled for the most part with a sure hand, clearly and judiciously. Sometimes we should have welcomed a fuller discussion. The best qualities of the book are seen in almost the same measure in its statements on the Theology of the Epistle as in its examination of the historical questions. The points of contrast and likeness between the Petrine and the Pauline teaching on Sin and the Law are put with particular force. The Epistle shows no trace of the doctrine of Imputation. And as to sin generally, it is regarded as concrete act, rather than as sinfulness. That is Dr. Bigg's verdict on the case. He allows too little, perhaps, for the sense of the terms "flesh," "the filth of the flesh," etc. But while concluding that Peter here does not view sin in the light of inherited evil, he is careful to give his views in these guarded terms: "We cannot absolutely infer from his silence that he did not know, or did not approve, the doctrine of St. Paul, but he certainly is silent".

S. D. F. SALMOND.

The Classical Heritage of the Middle Ages.

By Henry Osborn Taylor, New York. The Columbia University Press: The Macmillan Company, Agents. 8vo, pp. xv.+ 400. Price 7s. 6d. net.

This book is one of a series of "Studies in Literature" issued by Columbia University, and gives evidence of the author's extensive reading, varied culture, and patient and careful judgment. It deals with the transition from the classical to the mediæval period, with the changes undergone by the elements of classic culture, more especially from the fourth to the seventh century and in the province of the West of Europe. In ten compact and scholarly chapters Mr. Taylor succeeds in showing "how pagan tastes and ideals gave place to the ideals of Christianity and to Christian sentiments," and how the thought, literature and art of Greek and Roman antiquity were at once transmitted and transformed by the Christianity of the Middle Ages. The author is careful to point out that the work of those early transitional centuries was slowly and gradually completed. "No date marks the passing of the ancient world and the beginning of the Middle Ages." In the Greek and Roman world of the fourth and fifth centuries, Paganism and Christianity existed side by side. The former of these showed signs of decadence while Christianity asserted itself as "a new power and inspiration in thought, letters and art". The contrast between the classical spirit of antiquity and the new creative force of Christianity is well stated, "self-control, measure, limit, proportion, clarity and definiteness were principles of the antique; the Christian spirit broke through them all. Its profound spirituality, often turning to mysticism, had not the clarity of classic limitation. It did not recognise limit. Its reach was infinite, and therefore its expressions were

often affected with indefiniteness." This opposition to rigid classical forms, and the creation of fresh, rugged and original products is at work during centuries of unconscious conflict and transition and culminated in the Middle Ages, as is seen by the abandonment of the classic heritage in architecture, sculpture and painting. This rejection of antique classical elements, and the process of spiritual liberation that marked the realisation of Christian ideals, are the features outlined by the author in his Introduction and amply illustrated in detail throughout the subsequent chapters of his volume. Chapter ii. is devoted to "The Passing of the Antique Man," and to the rise of the less self-reliant Greek and Roman types of the fourth century. The next chapter illustrates the "Phases of Pagan Decadence," as seen in the need of fresh recruits for the Roman army, the weakening of municipal life, the decrease of population and the decline of literary faculty and taste. In chapter iv., which deals with the transmission of letters and the passage of that powerful fact, the Roman Law, it is interesting to find that Ireland was once a centre of peace and light. "In the sixth and seventh centuries the Irish were well-nigh the only Western Greek scholars. Ireland had been spared the torrential barbarian invasions, and now its scholars spread culture in Gaul and Northern Italy, and kept the knowledge of Greek from extinction." The reference in this chapter to the writings and personality of Boethius, "who summarised pagan logic and ethics for the Middle Ages," is also of special interest.

Our author next (ch. v.) deals with antique elements that were not left purely pagan but were "Christianised in their transmission," and selects the writings of Ambrose and others as examples of this fusion. The consideration of the rise of Christian "Mysteries and Symbolism" concludes this chapter. This interest in veiled and allegorical truths is significant in producing at last Dante's Commedia. Chapter vi. takes up the Christian treatment of "The Ideals of Knowledge, Beauty, Love," and discusses the views held by Augustine and others of the affections and their place in the scheme of life. This is followed by a full and suggestive chapter (vii.)

on the "Origins of Monasticism," and an interesting analysis of the monastic character in different types, such as Jerome, Ambrose, Augustine, Benedict and Gregory the Great. Chapters viii, and ix, are devoted to the rise of "Christian Prose" and "Christian Poetry," and the composition of those mediæval Latin hymns in which the antique spirit and the classical love of form and proportion again disappear. The tenth and closing chapter relates the course of "Christian Art" and of the architectural revival that was a visible sign of the triumph of Christianity. Mr. Taylor shows acquaintance with the literature bearing on this part of his subject; and indeed his clear and calm pages testify throughout to his fitness to handle the subject of his volume, and to his ability to write with historical grasp and with accuracy and fulness. of learning. The volume ends with a useful and minute bibliographical appendix and with an index.

W. M. RANKIN.

Histoire des Vaudois.

Par Em. Comba. Nouvelle Edition complète. Première Partie:

De Valdo à la Reforme. Paris: Fischbacher; Florence:
Libraire Claudienne, 1901. Pp. 775. Price (paper covers):
In Italy, Fr.5; abroad, Fr.6.

In this portly and well-printed volume Dr. Comba, Professor of Church History and Homiletics in the Waldensian Divinity College, Florence, gives us the final result of his long and laborious researches into his Church's early history. He brusquely characterises as "legendary" much that has been devoutly believed by many regarding its alleged apostolic origin. According to him, the most notable among the precursors of the "Israel of the Alps" was Pierre de Bruys, although his protest against Romish errors had no more relation to that of the Vaudois than had the protest of Arnaldo de Brescia, who has been called his successor. Dr. Comba finds in Valdo of Lyons the principal founder of the Church of the Cottian Valleys-not indeed its immediate founder, but the originator of the Society of the Poor Men of Lyons, who, along with the Poor Men of Lombardy, were driven by persecution to seek shelter among the fastnesses of the northern Alps. The three men just named worked for the same cause in different ways: Pierre de Bruys, following St. Bernard, sought to restore Christian worship to its original purity; Arnaldo, to restore to the Church its apostolic independence; and Valdo to rekindle the torch of its spiritual life.

Our author in a brief but interesting manner relates all that is known of Valdo's personal and religious life, from his arrival in Lyons in 1155 till his death in 1217, after thirty years' evangelistic work in Dauphiné, Languedoc, Picardy, Germany and Bohemia. The persecutions which speedily began to overtake his followers are then described, and much information regarding their doctrines and practices is

given, derived largely from the annals of the Inquisition, in which are recorded the confessions of its victims under torture. A good deal of light is also thrown on the rather obscure sects of the Patarins, Humiliati, Arnaldists, Cathari, and the Poor Men of Lyons and of Lombardy. All these were to a great extent imbued with Romish error both in doctrine and practice, but they differed from each other in more or less important details regarding both. The only prayer which they used was the Lord's Prayer, which was repeated a hundred times on holy days and several hundred times on festivals: but the Benedicite and Ave Maria were forbidden, at least as prayers. Valdo's two essential principles were the appeal to Scripture as the sole obligatory rule of faith and life and the duty of propagating the Gospel. For the views held regarding the sacraments, confession, absolution, fasting, purgatory, masses for the dead, etc., readers must be referred to the book itself.

To the question whether the disciples of Valdo, when they fled to the valleys of the Cottian Alps, found there a people who already held their faith, Dr. Comba denies that there is any evidence to justify an affirmative answer. He also denies that there is any historical evidence as to the time or manner in which the "Valdese" found their way to the valleys. In the pages that follow he describes the outbreak of persecution, the history of the colony of Calabria, the characteristics and work of the "Barbes," etc., etc. The closing chapter contains a very complete account of the Waldensian Scriptures and MSS. and a discussion as to the date of the Noble Lesson, which he fixes half-way between Valdo and the Reformation. The book is illustrated by reproductions of photographs both of historical places and MSS.

Students of the history of this ancient and interesting Church will find in Professor Comba's volume the results of careful research, independent thought, a firm grasp of controverted subjects, and a clear and impartial statement of the conclusions to which he has been led, "impugn (them) whose list".

The Problem of Conduct: A Study in the Phenomenology of Ethics.

By Alfred Edward Taylor, Assistant Lecturer in Greek and Philosophy at the Owens College, Manchester, Late Fellow of Merton College, Oxford. London: Macmillan and Co., 1901. 8vo, pp. viii. + 501. Price 10s. net.

This is a book of real individuality and power, the expression of a strenuous and notable personality, the work of a man of many interests and in touch with life at many points. Just on this account it will produce very various impressions, and it will be keenly criticised in widely separated schools of thought. For myself, I do not think that any more significant treatise on ethics has been published in recent years, and I should not wonder if it were to take very much the place that the Methods of Ethics took some thirty years ago. The two books have much in common. Sidgwick's book was the work of a thinker who set down nothing that he had not made thoroughly his own. It was his method rather than his ideas that were original. It was his great merit that he had in a sense reproduced a whole course of development and worked out to its natural conclusion the long movement of English ethical thought. No one familiar with the history of English ethics could fail to recognise how faithfully Sidgwick summed up in his work the outstanding characteristics of the writers who had gone before. None of the then dominant schools could quite claim him for its own because he had seen great part at least of the good in each. There is something of the same sort in Mr. Taylor's book. The spirit indeed is more eager and there is less calm impartiality. But it is the work of a man who is familiar with all the ethical writing of the last thirty years. There is no school from which he has not learned something, and there is none

that he does not criticise. Here we have what in one open mind at least has been the outcome of the more recent discussions. I might call it eclectic in character if the word did not have such an evil repute, but the eclecticism is of the kind that is inevitable in any philosophic view that seeks to be faithful to all the past.

The ultimate position does not very greatly differ from Sidgwick's. There is a universalistic hedonism of a sort, there is recognition of the value of intuitionism, there is a sense that both egoism and altruism have a certain justification, there is a feeling that nevertheless the two cannot be reconciled, there is criticism of what has been counted gospel by one school or the other. But one is almost surprised to find how much there is of similarity even in results between the two writers, for the atmosphere is entirely different. Evolution has come into ethics, and though Mr. Taylor sometimes differs widely from Herbert Spencer he is not so far removed from Mr. Stephen, and his whole treatment is dominated by the idea of development. He has spoiled the English Hegelians of much that Sidgwick never knew, and then gone out into what they would count desert. Though he feels as much as Sidgwick his affinity with the great English tradition, and even finds much to his mind in Hume, whom he reckons to have got much less than justice at the hands of Green, there is nothing insular about his thinking. He does not indeed care much for Kant and Hegel, and if he is willing to learn anything from Kant it is chiefly from the Kant of the first Critique. For the most part he is not content with going back to Kant, but like many others of the younger men has gone behind him to Spinoza and Leibnitz. The influence of these earlier writers is indeed obvious enough. But if he refuses to go no further back than Kant and Hegel, he is just as resolute not to stop with them, as if philosophy since then had had no history. If he does not propose to give us new lamps for old, the new are lit for us, and we see much of Nietzsche, now well known, and of Avenarius, still to most little more than a name. The greatest personal influence has been plainly that of Mr. The Critical Keview.

Bradley, the later Mr. Bradley of Appearance and Reality. The impress of that book is indeed everywhere apparent, and Mr. Taylor says for himself that he believes his essay contains nothing of any value that he did not learn from Mr. Bradley. But Mr. Taylor's modesty need not prevent us from recognising that much depends on the learner. That one should be a scholar at all in some schools counts for much. And it would be a great mistake to suppose that Mr. Taylor had nothing to teach readers of Mr. Bradley, or that those who had been repelled by Mr. Bradley need make no effort to understand Mr. Taylor. Mr. Taylor's is much more nearly than Mr. Bradley's a typical English mind. Some capable thinkers have been completely puzzled by Mr. Bradley's book, but there is nothing that need seriously perplex them in Mr. Taylor's. I ought to add that all through there are evident enough traces of a very close acquaintance with those old Greek writers whom we are all still proud to call our teachers. But it is Aristotle and not Plato that prevails.

Mr. Taylor writes in a good style, lucid, forcible, wellordered, full of literary allusion. The book is one which future students of ethics will never dream of neglecting, but it would be a great pity if it found no other readers. For the essay is in close touch with life, it is the work of one who has reflected much on the actual problems we all have to face, and it is full of suggestion. It is the kind of book which a man who takes no particular interest in the more technical ethical discussions might well read for the sake of the many valuable obiter dicta it contains. Those who are theologically instructed will read it with special interest for another reason. It is an outcome of that revolt from the rationalism of the Hegelian school which has found such notable expression in what for want of a better name we call the Ritschlian movement. There is the same distrust of metaphysic, the same dislike of theology so far as metaphysical, the same wish to base all on experience, the same readiness to trust the religious experience like the rest. The glad confidence of the Neo-Hegelian has vanished, and if reason is still a power for destruction, it does not have the same play given to it in the

constructive sphere. We have fallen on a less confident time. We are not all agnostics, but we all stand within the shadow. We all feel there are some things we cannot know. That we should be helped by what we count true for us seems more important, that our truth should help others as well seems to matter less. Even if they attempt no more, let theologians read Mr. Taylor's last chapter. There are some things in it I could not accept, but there is much that is profoundly true, and the reading of it is a wholesome corrective of some of the errors into which the theologian falls most readily. These things have indeed been said already even by theologians, but it is good to hear them again-from a non-theological quarter. There is no one with any openness of mind who will not learn something from Mr. Taylor's statement, whether he agree or disagree. But it is time to say something of the actual contents of the book.

In form the essay is a discussion of the relations between Ethics and Metaphysics. The view contended for is that neither science is derived from or dependent upon the other. Each, it is urged, is quite independent of the other, has its peculiar subject-matter, its special way of dealing with the facts of experience. Each requires separate treatment on its own merits. Both suffer if either is directly subordinated to the other, and yet each contributes to the other special problems for solution, and principles by which the solution of such problems may be effected. Ethics is no more dependent on metaphysical speculation than any of the so-called natural sciences. Its real basis is to be found in the empirical facts of our human life as these are sifted and systematised by psychology and sociology. Neither can we attribute to the leading concepts of ethics a full and final metaphysical truth and validity denied to the concepts of physical science.

The first two chapters are introductory and stand apart from the rest. They explain and defend the writer's conception of the function of metaphysics, they set forth the more abstract side of his arguments, and criticise with great acuteness and force the contention of the metaphysical moralists, chiefly as that is found in Green. Metaphysic is not set in The Critical Review.

opposition to science. Rather is it the goal of all genuine scientific endeavour. Science at its different levels is experience becoming more fully consistent with itself, freer from all admixture of hypotheses which are no better than symbols, like those which represent the square root of negative quantities, which we can profitably use in the solution of certain problems, but to which we can attach no real meaning. The scientific ideal would be an experience which embraced all the contents of experience, ours and others', in a harmonious system without gap, confusion or contradiction, an experience which saw things as they really are. We cannot say what would be the contents in detail of such a pure experience, but plainly nothing could enter it which did not conform to the general formal conditions of all experience as such. Any element of theory which cannot be translated into terms of contents of actual or possible experience without involving a contradiction is not the full truth about the facts. It is the function of metaphysics as constructive to formulate those most general formal conditions of experience with which any description of matter of fact which can be accepted as ultimately true must agree. Critically it is the business of metaphysics to test the theories which commonly pass for true by comparison with the ideal standard of a pure or perfect experience. It is indeed simply the consistent application of the two principles, that a description of experienced fact, to be fully true, must represent all the facts, and must represent them without contradiction.

From this conception of metaphysic very important conclusions follow. It is impossible from any formal metaphysic to deduce a concrete ethic. From the conception of a rational self, from the command not to act inconsistently, nothing worth while can be inferred. The ethic based on metaphysic is an empty tautology. If I am to find out what is reasonable for me, I must take into consideration not merely the fact that I am a self-determining personality, but the fact that I have certain original impulses and instincts and a certain physical and social environment. The Eternal Self of Green is indeed not a self at all. It stands outside all my struggles,

interests and hopes. It is in no way identical with the self whose victories are my triumphs and defeats my shame. From such a conception no laws can be derived that could ever be laws for me. If ethics depended simply upon metaphysic, it could never come into being. The metaphysical moralists make the fine show they do because they after all fall back upon experience, postulate those countless experiences of living, actual, flesh-and-blood men and women, which we all know. But even if it were acknowledged that it was impossible to rear an ethical structure upon the basis of metaphysics, it might still be urged that metaphysic was part at least of the ethical foundation, involved in our ethical theory and prior to it though not alone in that priority, or it might be contended that ethics involved a metaphysic in the sense that a critical examination of its affirmations left us with a metaphysic, that a body of ultimately valid metaphysical doctrine could be derived from it. Both these positions are rendered untenable if we can show that the concepts of ethics are beyond all doubt hopelessly contradictory in character, that they could not without unknown modifications become elements of such a complete and pure experience as alone could be in contact with the absolute truth. That ethics is of this contradictory and therefore unmetaphysical character it is the purpose of the survey which occupies the greater part of the book to establish.

The third chapter on "The Roots of Ethics" reviews the phenomena of the ethical life, and seeks to construct on a purely empirical basis a psychological account of the formal characteristics of the moral sentiments and actions. Such a review is necessary if we are to be clear as to what we mean by virtue and virtuous conduct. It plays also an important part in the general argument, for if our account of these things is felt by the normal moral consciousness to be adequate, and if the average understanding recognises the validity of the empirical derivation essayed, then we have gone a long way towards proving the untruth of the metaphysical contention. Psychology, not metaphysics, is the true foundation of ethics.

Mr. Taylor's analysis does not go back so far as some others Vol. XII.—No. I.

of late have done. The primary ethical fact he finds to be that the most primitive human consciousness views some things and actions with feelings of approval and others with feelings of disapproval. These are ultimate and irreducible facts, and to seek for more is to try to derive moral experience as a whole from experience which as yet is not moral. In their original form they are neither egoistic nor altruistic but impersonal. The rest of the chapter is occupied with an attempt not greatly different from others already familiar to trace the rise from these primitive sentiments of the concepts of obligation, conscience, right and wrong, responsibility, moral personality and merit.

The next chapter deals with "The Types of Virtue". It examines in outline some of the concrete types of behaviour which are recognised by the judgment of civilised men as praiseworthy, virtuous and meritorious. It deals with the lesser ideals, with justice, temperance, courage, and the like. With this we may group the fifth chapter which treats of "Moral Ideals and Moral Progress". Here the writer considers the ultimate ethical ideals of modern civilisation, and the process by which we are approximating to their realisation. If ethics, it is urged, is a body of inferences from finally true and valid metaphysical principles, we should be able to develop all the varied forms of conduct from a single type of behaviour. The question therefore is put, Are those actions we recognise as praiseworthy thus capable of reduction to a single type, or, if they are not, is there any reason for thinking that as civilisation advances this will be increasingly possible? As the outcome of a long and interesting discussion Mr. Taylor answers both parts of the question with a negative. We are compelled to regard now self-assertion, selfsatisfaction, self-development, and again the satisfaction of a wider whole as the two equally ultimate but quite irreconcilable poles between which our ethical practice is continually vacillating. Altruism and egoism are divergent, but alike inevitable, developments from the common psychological root of the original ethical sentiments. But neither can be made the sole basis of moral theory without mutilation of the facts,

nor can any higher category be discovered by the aid of which their rival claims may be finally adjusted. From self-seeking to disinterested benevolence there is no road, and the apparent subsumption of both under a common name by the theory of self-realisation is little more than a piece of verbal legerdemain. If altruism were the whole truth, the only thing worth promoting would be the altruistic spirit. All moral endeavour is a business of more or less unprincipled compromise, and all the results which issue from it are marked more or less by vanity and vexation of spirit. Neither is there such a thing as absolute moral progress. Moral gain has always to be paid for by losses of one kind or another. From all this Mr. Taylor draws the conclusion that the experience which finds expression in the concepts and theories of ethics is not such a pure experience as has been postulated but one riddled through and distorted with symbolic untruth. Its hypotheses are merely provisional, and none of its leading concepts will stand the test of metaphysical criticism.

Chapter six discusses "Pleasure, Duty, and the Good". It turns aside in a manner from the main argument, to refute certain theories that must be shown untenable if the author's position is not to be adroitly turned. Neither pleasure nor duty can be the sole ultimate good. As regards hedonism, the conclusion reached is that we may so far accept a universalistic ethical hedonism as to admit that the normal result of the moral act is pleasurable, when its effects upon the whole social circle influenced by it are taken into account. On the other hand, it is contended that there are considerable exceptions and that hedonism would be one of the worst possible guides to immediate moral practice. As regards the Intuitionist theories, their assumption that an imperative which holds good for one member of the moral community holds equally good for all the others, is declared to be practically convenient but intellectually false. The ethical judgment is primarily the expression of a subjective preference, and the universe within which it is universally valid is primarily that of the experiences of a single individual. This view of the categorical imperative Mr. Taylor considers to be

the logical statement of the familiar Protestant principle of the supremacy of conscience. Nor does it say, he thinks, anything more than is said by the religion which most of us profess to respect, when it forbids us to judge our brother.

The last two chapters may be taken together. They are called respectively "The Goal of Ethics" and "Beyond Good and Bad". They return to the problem of the apparently insuperable duality of the moral ideal. They ask how far and on what lines it is soluble within the limits of the ethical experience, and how far that experience must be modified in order to set it finally free from the taint of self-contradiction. It is found that in attempting to set itself free from its inherent inconsistencies morality transforms itself into religion, and abandons certain concepts and categories of universal application within the limits of morality proper. Religion knows nothing of merit or demerit. Where morality speaks of varying degrees of merit religion knows nothing except of free and unmerited grace. It insists upon the ultimate worthlessness of our ethical standards of worth. testimony of the religious experience thus deals the final blow to the pretension of ethics to any metaphysical validity. If it be urged that religion belongs to the same practical side of life as ethics, and embodies the truth to which it naturally led, it still remains to say that religion itself fails if tried by the standard of a pure experience. It cannot indeed, Mr. Taylor thinks, be too vehemently urged that the intellectual outlook of religion itself is limited and obscured by symbolic concepts which forbid us to regard it as a finally adequate expression of truth in the form of pure experience. The metaphysician at least must regard the world from a point of view which is supra-religious as well as supraethical. In the case of practical religion the basis of compromise indeed stares us in the face, the moment we look at things squarely and fairly. For the intellectual prerequisite of the religious experience is a conviction of the unreality of failure and evil, and everything else that bears upon it the stamp of imperfection, and yet unless you sufficiently believe in the reality of evil to spend yourself in the practical struggle

against it you will not permanently get the religious experience.

I am painfully conscious of the bareness and inadequacy of this brief summary. It can give no idea of the wealth of material in the book and the fulness and interest of the treatment. I can only hope that my readers will turn to Mr. Taylor's pages for themselves.

WILLIAM JOHNSTON.

The Churchman's Introduction to the Old Testament. By Angus M. Mackay, B.A., Rector of Holy Trinity, Edinburgh. London: Methuen & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xii. + 305. Price 3s. 6d.

This is one of the volumes of the Churchman's Library, of which the Rev. J. H. Burns, B.D., is the general editor. Some very good contributions have been already made to that series. Among these we may mention in particular Mr. Jevons's volume on Evolution, an able and carefully written treatise, dealing with the question how the theory in view, if we accept it as science, should "modify the thought and action of a man who wishes to do his best in this world". In that book Mr. Jevons gives us admirable statements on Optimism, Pessimism, Idealism and other cognate subjects, acute criticisms of those who hold the unknowability of the Real, and searching examinations of the hypothesis of Necessity, and the assumptions involved in the assertion that in Nature we have only the mimicry of purpose. The conclusion to which he leads us by a careful train of argument and criticism is in brief that "the 'ethical process' and the 'cosmic process' are not so absolutely opposed to one another as Professor Huxley endeavoured to make out"; that, as there is a faith in religion which is the condition of the extension of religion, so there is a faith in science which is the condition of success in science: and that with that faith, legitimately exercised, we may succeed in solving, to some extent at least, the problems of the one sphere as of the other. Mr. Mackay's volume, which is addressed to the intelligent layman in particular, has in view the effect which the theory of evolution has

¹ Evolution. By Frank B. Jevons, M.A., D.Litt., Principal of Bishop Hatfield's Hall, Durham. London: Methuen & Co., 1900. Cr. 8vo, pp. 301. Price 3s. 6d.

upon men's views of the Old Testament. He has special regard to the educated man who sees how that theory "throws light not only on the phenomena of the physical sciences but upon human life in all its departments," and who "cannot but suspect that it ought to have a similar illuminating power when applied to religion". His object, therefore, is to give a succinct, fair, and easily understood account of the attitude of the best modern scholarship to Old Testament questions, and to show how a just criticism, instead of adding to the difficulties of the case, helps to remove them. He deals in a well-informed way, though very briefly, with the literary history of each of the books, and writes effectively on such subjects as the nature of Hebrew poetry, the predictive element in prophecy, the contributions made to our knowledge by recent archæology, etc. Some things of importance are lacking. There is no estimate, e.g., of the value of Gunkel's views of the origin of the book of Genesis and the antiquity of its narratives, or of the new turn which his methods of criticism may give to the Pentateuchal question. But the author gives a good popular statement of the general situation and of the chief particulars. It is satisfactory also to see what his own conclusion is. "However composite," he says, "the character of some of the sacred books of the Old Testament, however various the forms of literary activity it enshrines, and however many the recensions its various parts may have passed through, there is nothing in recent discoveries regarding it to make us doubt that in its pages we hear the voices of men with a Divine message, who spake 'as they were moved by the Holy Ghost,' or that its canon has been formed under the shaping hand of an overruling Providence."

S. D. F. SALMOND.

The Historical New Testament. Being the Literature of the New Testament arranged in the order of its Literary Growth and according to the Dates of the Documents. A new Translation, edited with Prolegomena, Historical Tables, Critical Notes, and an Appendix. By James Moffatt, B.D. Second and revised edition. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1901. 8vo, pp. xl. + 724. Price 16s.

We have already noticed Mr. Moffatt's 1 book at considerable length, and it is unnecessary to add much at present to what has been already said. This new edition is substantially the same as the former. The amount of revision which has been possible is naturally small. There has been no time for any serious reconsideration of arguments or conclusions. There is no change in the main positions. Neither is there any change in the author's attitude to others. It would have been pleasant to have seen Mr. Moffatt do justice to himself by making the amende honorable for the unbecoming terms which he was betrayed into using with regard to Professor Sanday and others of our most experienced and most eminent scholars. We regret to find nothing of the kind, although the introduction of a new Preface offered the opportunity.

The interest of this new edition lies in the new Preface. And in it there is much that will be read with satisfaction. The fresh explanation which is given there of the "precise tendency and exact scope" of the volume will be welcome to many and may help to dispel some misconceptions. It is of importance also to see how, in Mr. Moffatt's own judgment, there is nothing in the methods or results regarded by him as scientific that will be "found ultimately irreconcilable" with the New Testament literature when viewed "in its directly religious aspects, as the witness to a Gospel, and the outcome of a revelation". He is emphatic, too, in declaring that he should deem it "unscientific and dishonest" if discussions like those he prosecutes were "conducted on the a priori assumption that the miraculous is

¹ Vol. xi., pp. 252, 446.

impossible". And he adds that it is not otherwise with "the Deity of Christ, the evangelical authority inherent in God's word for faith and Christian experience, and the abiding value of the Community of believers".

Mr. Moffatt contends very properly for the Protestant right of inquiry, for the Reformation view of the Bible, and for the compatibility of historical criticism with the interests of faith. With all this we are of course in entire sympathy. The Bible can have nothing to fear from historical criticism. provided it be really historical, and the Protestant Church cannot but be true to her principles. But the real question remains, when all that is granted. That is the question-What is historical criticism? What kind of criticism professing to be historical is worthy of the name and really scientific? Is it that which takes objective evidence, the evidence of texts and documents, as its basis, and gives forth as its conclusions the results of patient inductive inquiry? Or is it that which is dominated by subjective ideas? There are other assumptions that men are apt to start with besides the presupposition that the miraculous is impossible. There are the assumptions that our Lord could not have spoken such and such words at particular times, that the apostles could not have written sentences which seem to imply the existence of some measure of organisation in the Church, that Paul could not have had certain doctrinal ideas at certain stages in his career, and so forth. These are the theoretical suppositions that lead to the elimination from the Gospels of this word and the other as not Christ's own, and of this statement and the other from the epistles as made not by any apostle or contemporary but by the later Church. It is a style of criticism which has quite unusual fascinations. It is so easy a thing. Under its delightfully elastic conditions one can throw out half-a-score of fine hypotheses of an evening. And how charmingly it lends itself to pyrotechnical display! But a criticism which works by these notions has little more title to be accepted as historical than that which starts with the theoretical negation of the possibility of miracle. And it is very different from the genuine science, which works

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patiently with its documents and testimonies, and is slow to reach its results, and always most modest in stating them.

The Teaching of Jesus. By George Barker Stevens, Ph.D., D.D., Dwight Professor of Systematic Theology in Yale University. New York: The Macmillan Company; London: Macmillan & Co., Ltd., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xii. + 190. Price 3s. 6d.

This volume forms one of the series of New Testament Handbooks edited by Professor Shailer Matthews of the University of Chicago. The series has obtained a very good name for careful and thorough work, and this contribution to it by Professor Stevens will add to its reputation. What is attempted is to "translate the thought of Jesus into modern terms, and so to correlate the different elements of His teaching as to exhibit its inner unity". In this Professor Stevens has succeeded well, while the method followed and the general arrangement of matter make the book very suitable for the professed purposes of a text-book for schools and Bible classes and a manual for private study. The proper subject of the book is appropriately introduced by two chapters which give concise statements on the religious beliefs of the Jews in our Lord's time and the records of His words and deeds. These are followed by two chapters which deal with the methods of our Lord's teaching and His attitude to the Old Testament. Then come discussions of particular elements in His Teaching-the Kingdom of God, the Father, the Son of Man, the Son of God, the value and destiny of man, etc. There are excellent remarks on the teaching by Parable, the problem of Jesus' Knowledge, the idea of the ecclesia or Church, and many other topics. The questions raised by the various ways in which the Second Coming is spoken of are handled with scholarly carefulness and discernment. The same may be said of the expositions of the Johannine conceptions of the resurrection and the judgment. There are one or two points on which the whole case does not seem to us to be given or in which there is some misapprehension. In the paragraphs, e.g., which deal with our Lord's teaching

on sin, the position is affirmed that He did not teach "total depravity". But the idea attached to "total depravity" is an extreme Augustinian idea, not what is really meant by the term. Nor are all the great words bearing on the sinfulness of man's condition kept in view. And again the meaning of the great declarations on the subject of His death which are expressed in terms of "ransom" and the "blood of the covenant," "in place of many," and "unto remission of sins," appears to us to be somewhat inadequately understood, in respect not only of the terms themselves, but also of the peculiar significance given them by the occasions on which they were spoken. On most of the main subjects, however, as e.g., on the import of the titles "Son of Man," "Son of God," it would be difficult to refer the student to statements at once so concise, so just and so informing.

Ruling Ideas of our Lord. By CHARLES F. D'ARCY, D.D., Dean of Belfast, author of Idealism and Theology. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1901. Small cr. 8vo, pp. 139. Price 2s. 6d.

This is one of a new series of books entitled "Christian Study Manuals," edited by R. E. Welsh, M.A. It is an attempt to set forth the leading ideas of Christ's teaching. first in the field of morals, and secondly in that of religion. Under the first head it deals with the ideas of the "Kingdom," the "Pure Heart," the "Great Example," and "Life and Growth". Under the second it explains what is meant by the "Father," the "Son," the "Paraclete," the "Fulness of Christ". The truths conveyed by these terms are expounded clearly and succinctly, with due regard to their historical meaning, and at the same time in relation to their modern equivalents. Justice is also done to the vital union between the moral and the religious in Christ's views of things. There are some very just remarks on the appearance of paradox in some of His statements and illustrations of ethical principles. the unexampled place and aspect given to sin in His teaching, His method of self-revelation, etc. The book is to be cordially recommended.

Anselm and his Work. By Rev. A. C. Welch, M.A., B.D. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xiv. + 251. Price 3s.

This volume belongs to the series known as The World's Epoch-makers, edited by Mr. Oliphant Smeaton. It is one of the best contributions to the series. The author has read extensively and thoughtfully in the history and literature of the tenth and eleventh centuries. He has made himself acquainted with the best books that have been written on Anselm from Eadmer to Rémusat, Hasse, Church, Rule, Rigg, and Ragey, etc. He has also consulted Anselm's writings and his voluminous correspondence. And he has been able to throw the results of his studies into good form, so that his book reads pleasantly.

The bulk of the volume is given to the Life of Anselm and

to his active work. Less space is left for his philosophy and his theology. His writings, however, are noticed, each in its historical order, and some account is given of their contents and purpose. A high value is claimed for the Meditations. In these Mr. Welch finds "some of Anselm's best religious work". A whole chapter is devoted to the Monologium and the Proslogium, the interest and importance of which, as fundamental and introductory writings, are fully recognised. The criticism of the Cur Deus Homo is also good. It makes more, perhaps, of the externalising and quantitative view which that great treatise, one of the few epoch-making treatises in theology, is held to give of Christ's work; and it might have been more appreciative of its merits in respect of the profound views of sin, of guilt, and of faith which it teaches, and the immediacy of the relation in which it places sin not to external Law but to the personal God. But it speaks well of the emphasis with which Anselm presented the voluntariness of Christ's sacrifice and other elements of spiritual value in the Atonement. It also recognises fully that the doctrine of the Cur Deus Homo must be interpreted in the light of the thought

and the religion of the time, and does justice to its historical

importance.

The career of Anselm is sketched stage by stage with much vividness. The intricacies of the Investiture struggle are set forth lucidly and with a just appreciation of the real meaning of the contest. The volume closes with a brief but carefully drawn estimate of the great Churchman and the debt which England owes him.

The Argument of Adaptation; or, Natural Theology reconsidered.

By the Rev. George Henslow, M.A., F.L.S., F.G.S., etc. Pp. 64. Christ no Product of Evolution. By the Rev. George Henslow, M.A., F.L.S., F.G.S., etc. Pp. 68. Spiritual Teaching of Bible Plants. By the Rev. George Henslow, M.A., F.L.S., F.G.S., etc. Pp. 96. The At-one-ment. By the Rev. George Henslow, M.A., F.L.S., F.G.S., etc. Pp. 68. London: Williams & Norgate. Price is. each.

In these small volumes, which are not new, Mr. Henslow puts what he has to say in a very clear and concise form. In dealing with the symbolism of the roots and branches of plants, as he does in the third of these books, and with particular plants and trees, the hyssop, the vine and others, he places some suggestive matter at the disposal of the preacher. In the volume on the Atonement he is less successful, especially when he comes to grapple with the Biblical meaning of the Divine Wrath, and with the terms propitiation, expiation, and the like. Occasionally he is capable of coining a term not known to the dictionaries. Where has he come upon the "Greek word" which appears as Katallasse on page 6? In the other volumes he is on ground more familiar to him, and there we find some very pertinent criticisms and sensible remarks. He points out certain misapprehensions and infirmities in the objections urged even by capable writers against Paley's argument, and sets himself to show that if we substitute adaptation for design the teleological argument becomes sounder and stronger than before. In this connexion he accepts the statement given thus by Romanes, "The argument from general law says, there must be a God, because such and such an organic structure must in some way or other have been ultimately due to intelligence. . . . Let us think of the supreme causality as we may, the fact remains that from it there emanates a directive influence of uninterrupted consistency, on a scale of stupendous magnitude and exact precision worthy of our highest conceptions of deity." In the volume placed second on the list Mr. Henslow criticises the views of Mr. Leslie Stephen, Mr. Herbert Spencer and Professor Huxley on the evolution of morality and the origin of Christianity. By an examination of the intellectual and moral condition of the Judaism of our Lord's time and His unique place and influence in the history of the world, he leads us on to the conclusion that Christ was not Himself a "development" or "product" of His environment, but a "new creation".

The Foundations of Belief. Being Notes Introductory to the Study of Theology. By the Rt. Hon. Arthur James Balfour, author of A Defence of Philosophic Doubt, etc. Eighth edition, revised. With an Introduction and Summary. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xxxvi. + 399. Price 6s. net.

It is a striking testimony at once to the merits of this book, the interest of its subject and the mental capacity of English readers, that, though printed first only in 1895, it is already in its eighth edition. In this issue it should be more widely read and better understood than before, for the learned author has wisely taken the opportunity of revising his work and endeavouring to make its argument clearer. With this view he has removed to the end of his volume certain discussions which seemed to interfere with the direct course of his argument. He has also given some new notes, an important introduction and a very useful summary. All this gives a character to the present edition, and helps to make things clearer.

Opinion was sharply divided as to the drift and value of the book when it was first published. Opinion, no doubt, will continue to be divided, some critics looking on it as an apologetic of no common importance, others regarding it rather as ministering to uncertainty. It has been reviewed at length in this journal some time ago, and it is not necessary to repeat what was said of it then. But this, at least, ought to be said, that there is less reason now than there might have been in earlier issues for misunderstanding the purpose of the volume.

It is to mistake it if it is regarded as a philosophy, and dealt with as if it meant to enter into competition with the great schemes of thought which aim at constructing a science of the Knowable. It is not a system of metaphysics, nor is it put forward even as a contribution to that. Nor again is it an attempt to find the foundations of belief in doubt, or to shut us up to the conclusion that there is neither certainty nor an assured basis in reason for anything, and that we must fall back simply on belief or credulity. Its one object is to deal with "Naturalism," and with that as defined by the author himself. And with regard to that, it aims at making various positions good. It seeks to show that "the difficulties and obscurities which beset the attempt to fuse into a coherent whole the living beliefs of men are not to be found on one side only of the line dividing science from religion"; that "naturalism is not the goal towards which we are being driven by the intellectual endeavour of the ages"; and that "nothing is to be gained either for philosophy or for science by attempting to minimise its deficiencies". Its object also is to convince us that there is nothing necessarily irrational in accepting ethical and theological beliefs that cannot be reached by the methods that are applicable to the physical sciences; and not only so, but that in point of fact science and ethics become both of them more intelligible and more suitable to make parts of a coherent whole "when they are framed in a theological setting than when they are framed in one which is purely naturalistic".

In working out these positions Mr. Balfour uses the weapon of sceptical criticism. He makes a skilful use of this weapon in his argument, and he vindicates the legitimacy and the utility of the employment of such an instrument. Men

acquiesce with remarkable and deceptive facility in the limitations of the Naturalistic creed, and settle into the easy belief that it is the only creed that is "rational, self-consistent, sure". The great remedy for that "mood of dogmatic serenity" is this sceptical criticism; and if it does nothing else, it will destroy the illusion that "Naturalism is a creed in which mankind may find intellectual repose". But Mr. Balfour's book needs no commendation. It has a fascination which has been widely felt. It may be vulnerable at certain points, and, as some think, even all along the line. But it has not been written for nothing.

Epitome of the Synthetic Philosophy of Herbert Spencer. By F. HOWARD COLLINS. With a Preface by Herbert Spencer. Fifth edition. (The Philosophy completed and in part revised.) London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. 8vo, pp. xix. + 692. Price 21s.

We do not wonder that this large volume has reached its fifth edition-its uses are so obvious and the service which it seeks to render is so well rendered. Few would lightly undertake so large and difficult a task as that of summarising the Spencerian philosophy. But Mr. Collins has had exceptional qualifications for such work, having been engaged for some years in helping Mr. Spencer in the making of indexes to his books. It cost him five years to complete his task, but it was worth attempting, and it has been well done. What Mr. Collins has put into our hands is a condensed statement of the general principles of the Synthetic Philosophy, and this is given as far as possible in Mr. Spencer's own words. He begins with the "First Principles" -the discussion of the Unknowable and the Knowable, the application of the doctrine of Hamilton and Mansel, etc., and proceeds thereafter to the "Principles of Biology," the "Principles of Psychology," the "Principles of Sociology" and the "Principles of Ethics". The book is a marvel of industry and capacity for summarising. In most cases it succeeds in reducing the sections of the original to one-tenth of their size. It condenses into between 600 and 700 pages

the contents of more than 5,000. It is not to be read at a leap certainly. It is rather a book of reference. To use Mr. Spencer's own figure, it is like an "outline map" which one does well to consult "before starting on a journey through an unknown region," and which he will also do well to look at as he passes from one point to another on his way. It should also be said that in this new issue Mr. Collins has been able to make use of the revised and enlarged edition of the *Principles of Biology* and the revised edition of the *First Principles*. His laborious work, therefore, sets the Synthetic Philosophy before us in its latest and most complete form. We owe him much.

Studies in Christian Character, Work and Experience. By the Rev. W. L. WATKINSON. London: Charles H. Kelly, 1901. Small cr. 8vo. First series, pp. 248; second series, pp. 252. Price 2s. 6d. each.

The Rev. W. L. Watkinson lays many readers under obligation by the issue of two small volumes, attractive both in contents and in form, bearing the title of Studies in Christian Character, Work, and Experience. They consist of brief papers or meditations ranging over a wide variety of topics. The subjects selected for exposition include such as these—the Surprises of the Judgment, The Brink of Failure, Dry-rot in Character, Strained Piety, The Dirge of the Harvest, Uncaged Birds, The Immortality of Influence, etc. They are in many respects admirable studies, and make most profitable as well as pleasant reading. They are attached to Scripture-texts and have the character of pulpit addresses. But they combine the touch of the man of letters with the earnest purpose of the preacher. They offer us many striking reflections expressed in choice and telling terms. They catch the attention by the expression given to the leading idea and by the ingenious way in which it is linked on to its text. Examples of this are seen in the meditations on The Secret of Speed (Psalm exix. 32), Points of Departure (I Sam. xii. 21), Petrification (Heb. iii. 13), Measured by the Shadow (Job

vii. 17, 18), The Might of Mediocrity (2 Sam. xxiv. 18, 19), Blue Distances (Exod. xxiv. 10), and others.

Newman. An Appreciation in two Lectures: with the Choicest Passages of his Writings Selected and Arranged. By Alexander Whyte, D.D. Edinburgh and London: Oliphant, Anderson & Ferrier, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. viii. + 254. Price 3s. 6d.

Few men are so well qualified to undertake an estimate of Newman as Dr. Whyte. From his youth he has been an ardent student of his writings. He followed with an interest almost personal the changes in his career, and steeped his mind in the spirit of his books. In many ways John Henry Newman has had a singular fascination for him and has exercised a profound influence over him, especially as a preacher. Nor has anything materially affected the mental relation of Dr. Whyte to the great Cardinal. He has become more sensible indeed to the defects of Newman's theology. He has become more profoundly convinced than ever of the fundamental importance of the Protestant doctrine of justification by faith alone, the more he has penetrated into the real meaning of Newman's teaching. But his general estimate of the man remains what it was when he was most under the spell of the preacher of St. Mary's and the priest of Littlemore.

It is most natural, therefore, for Dr. Whyte to give us an appreciation of Newman, and in this book he has fulfilled expectations which many have cherished long. It is a volume full of interest from beginning to end, and is likely to take rank with the very best things the writer has done. The study and criticism of Newman carry you with them all along. They are based on the most intimate acquaintance with Newman's personality, writings and work, and are better than most things of the kind that are known to us. The selections from the Cardinal's works are made with the best judgment. The value of the book is enhanced by an appendix containing six letters of Newman's hitherto unpublished, and by a facsimile of his penmanship.

Flood-Tide, Sunday Evenings in a City Pulpit. Rev. G. H. Morrison, M.A., Dundee. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 292. Price 5s.

These are discourses that it does one good to read. They touch the life and quicken the spiritual sense. Mr. Morrison is the master of a very effective style, simple, direct and winning, and he has the gift of putting much into little. These pulpit addresses are quite brief, but they contain much good matter set forth in choice and telling language. The subjects handled include such as these: the "Religious Uses of Memory," the "Proportions of Life," the "Contradictions of Life," the "Right and Wrong Uses of our Past," the "Loneliness of Sin," the "Ministry of Surprise," etc. The titles are always fitly chosen, and often striking. They arrest attention and stimulate healthy curiosity. There are many passages which it would be a pleasure to quote, and which it must have been a greater pleasure to hear. And there is no attempt at fine writing or startling statement. All is devout, unassuming, and directed to the great ends of Christian nurture and edification.

In the December number of the Catholic World the Rev. Lucian Johnston follows up a previous paper on "The Art of Preaching in Mediæval Times" by a short and racy sketch of "Preaching during the Renaissance". The point which the writer endeavours to make out is that "like all other literary arts, preaching during the Renaissance considerably degenerated from its mediæval simple earnestness under the spell of the too sudden and hence ill-digested importation of Greek culture".

The last issue of the *Methodist Review* for 1901 contains much excellent matter of various kinds. Professor Milton S. Terry contributes an article on the "Miraculous birth of Jesus Christ," in which he criticises the objections alleged against the historical trustworthiness of the narratives bearing on the subject, and calls attention to certain correlative facts in keeping with the supernatural birth. There is an instruc-

tive paper also by Professor E. B. Lease on the idea of "Apotheosis among the Ancients".

The fourth part of the fourth volume of the Archiv für Religionswissenschaft, ably conducted by Professor Th. Achelis, opens with two very instructive papers, one by Dr. O. Schell dealing with the history of a particular type of belief in the continuance of the soul after death, and one by J. Köhler on the belief in spirits prevalent among uncivilised peoples.

Several articles deserve attention in the fourth part of the second volume of Preuschen's Zeitschrift für die neutestamentliche Wissenschaft und die Kunde des Urchristentums. The most elaborate is one by J. A. Cramer which goes into a minute critical examination of the Logos-passages in Justin's Apologies. There is another, also of a detailed order, by Mr. F. C. Conybeare, giving a series of testimonies from Eusebius which might be taken to suggest that the full reading "in the name of the Father, and the Son, and the Holy Ghost" may not be the original reading in Matt. xxviii. 19-a position difficult, indeed, to establish in view of the overwhelming testimony of MSS, and versions. The paper by Dr. Oscar Holtzmann, which has for its title "Der Messiasglaube Jesu," is of value for its criticism of the position of those represented specially by Wrede's recent book, Das Messiasgeheimniss in den Evangelien, who deny or doubt our Lord's consciousness of His Messiahship.

We have also to notice the twelfth volume of the Expository Times, as full of life and variety as ever, providing wisely for many different wants, and dealing in helpful manner with a multitude of subjects ranging from the finer points of Old and New Testament criticism down to the plainest practical counsel for the pastor; the third volume of the Sixth Series of the Expositor, of which it is enough to say that it continues to fulfil with its wonted efficiency the function indicated

¹ Edited by James Hastings, M.A., D.D. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark. Pp. 568. Price 7s. 6d.

² Edited by the Rev. W. Robertson Nicoll, M.A., D.D. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 476. Price 7s. 6d.

by its name, and to offer of the best that many competent writers can give on the interpretation of Scripture and the exposition of its spiritual truths; The Christian Ministry, by the late J. B. Lightfoot, D.D., D.C.L., LL.D., Lord Bishop of Durham—a republication of the famous essay in separate form, which we owe to the wise consideration of the trustees of the Lightfoot Fund, and in which the original argument is enriched and elucidated by explanatory extracts selected by the author himself, and by important passages from the second edition of his Apostolic Fathers giving the reasons which led to his change of view on the Ignatian question; Die Bedeutung der beiden Definitorialordnungen von 1628 und 1743 für die Geschichte des Darmstädter Definitoriums, von Lic. Theol., Wilhelm Diehl; 1 a study of an interesting passage in the history of German Church law, done with characteristic German thoroughness; Christ and Human Life,2 by Darwell Stone, M.A., a series of four Lectures (together with a short sermon on the "Fatherhood of God") on Christ and Judaism, Christ and Heathenism, Christ and Modern Thought, and Christ and Modern Life, which, without attempting anything very novel or profound, set forth in a simple and popular style some of the broader aspects of these subjects; Classification, Theoretical and Practical, by Ernest Cushing Richardson, Librarian of Princeton University, a sagacious book on the theory of library science, the work of a highly esteemed and experienced librarian in which he deals with the questions of the order of the sciences and the classification of books, and gives his views of the various systems of classification, the principles best applicable to the arrangement of libraries, methods of notation, subdivision, etc.; Home Thoughts,4 in form, type and contents a beautiful

¹Giessen: Ricker; London: Williams & Norgate, 1900. 8vo, pp. 44. Price 1s. 6d. net.

² London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 135. Price 2s. 6d. net.

³ New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xiv. + 248. \$1.25 net.

⁴By C. (Mrs. James Farley Cox). London: Gay & Bird. Fcp. 8vo, pp. 322. Price 3s. 6d.

book, well-entitled to its place in "The World Beautiful Library," made up of a series of essays, attractively written, tender in feeling, and wise in counsel, on the various aspects and relations of the family, its different members and their several places, the etiquette of family life, our children as judges, etc.; Memoranda Paulina,1 by George Jackson, B.A., a series of Sunday readings in St. Paul's epistles, reprinted from Good Words, brief and pointed meditations written in a bright and pleasant style, dealing in an edifying and suggestive way with such topics as "the Witness to Christ," "the Control of the Thoughts," "the Patience of Hope," "Sweet Reasonableness," etc.; a new and revised edition of J. Garnier's volume on Sin and Redemption,2 a suggestive treatise, already noticed in this journal,3 which leads us by a careful line of reasoning on pain, moral evil and man's constitution to a theory of the atonement which interprets Christ's death as a propitiation but not as an expiation; an Examination of Harnack's "What is Christianity?" 4 by Professor Sanday, a discriminative estimate and criticism of Harnack's main ideas, protesting against the disparagement of the Fourth Gospel and against the mistaken endeavour to have a Christianity without a Christology; a numberof excellent volumes published by the Sunday School Union, including the twenty-second annual issue of Young England,5 a storehouse of good and profitable matter for our youth, a short, interesting sketch of Catherine of Siena,6 by Florence Witts, and a series of Stories from the Pilgrim's Progress,7 compiled with admirable taste by E. A. Macdonald -a very attractive book; also some equally useful and interesting books published by Andrew Melrose, among which we mention in particular a well-written and instructive sketch

¹ London: Isbister & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. ii. +268. Price 3s. 6d.

² London: Elliot Stock, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. xvii. + 508.

³ Vol. iv., p. 174.

London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1901. 8vo, pp. 29. Price 1s. net.

⁵ Published at 57 and 59 Ludgate Hill, London. Pp. 475. Price 5s.

⁶ The Story of Catherine of Siena. Pp. 475. Price 5s.

⁷ Pp. 125. Price 1s.

of the life and work of *President McKinley*,¹ by David Williamson, and the year's volume of *Boys of our Empire*,² a magazine which has deservedly taken a high rank for excellence and variety of matter among publications of its kind; another volume of the *Biblical Illustrator*, edited by the Rev. Joseph S. Exell, in which the book of *Proverbs* ³ is expounded and its maxims elucidated and applied with a copious and, in most cases, well-chosen and pertinent collection of exegetical, historical and homiletic matter gathered from many different sources, English and foreign.

¹ President McKinley; the Story of his Life. London: Andrew Melrose, 1901. Pp. 128. Price 1s. net.

² London: Andrew Melrose, vol. i., 1901. Pp. 944. Price 7s. 6d.

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The Present Position of Critical Opinion on the Book of Daniel.

THE present time seems opportune for a statement on this subject. Nowhere in the realm of Old Testament study has the science of historical criticism reached conclusions which are more generally accepted by scholars of all shades of opinion; and, on the other hand, there is perhaps no book in the Bible which affords a better opportunity of testing the possibility of adjusting the old faith to the new situation. Daniel in the lion's den, the three children in the fiery furnace, the impious king trembling before the mysterious handwriting on the wall, have been familiar to us from our childhood. It is easy to understand the feelings of those who are jealous of even the appearance of an attempt to take away the value of narratives which have appealed so powerfully to the imagination of many generations. But it is well to remember that it is neither safe nor honest to hold opinions simply because we should like them to be true, or to assume, without examination, that the cable of tradition will hold fast under any strain that may be put upon it. In studying Scripture in general, and the book of Daniel in particular, we are in a world so different from that around us every day that it is imperatively necessary for us to keep a perfectly open mind, and, however strange some of the literary devices we encounter may appear to our Western habits of thought, to learn not to turn away in impatience as if the product of such processes must be worthless, and the men who employed them dishonest or dupes. Above all, we must be on our guard against seeking to save the reputation of Scripture, where we imagine that to be necessary, by methods we should hesitate to adopt elsewhere. A mistaken zeal for what they supposed to be the honour of God led Job's three friends far astray, and brought upon these apologists for the Almighty the scathing rebuke of the sufferer: "Will ve speak what is wrong and

alk deceit out of partiality for God? Will ye respect His erson, will ye stand up for God? . . . He will surely reprove ou if ye do secretly show partiality " (Job xiii. 7 ff.). These words have often recurred to the mind of the present writer n treading the difficult path of Old Testament study. They all us imperatively to pause whenever we are tempted to esort to special pleading or to strain the evidence in order to vade conclusions that are unwelcome. It is undeniable that the primâ facie impression produced

y reading the book of Daniel is that its first six chapters re meant in the most literal sense to be a narrative of actual ccurrences, and its last six to be no less a record of actual isions beheld and predictions uttered. Nay, the book is vidently put forward as the work of Daniel himself. Of ome of the visions we are expressly told that the account was ritten down by him, and as, in spite of a few attempts that ave been made to prove the contrary, it may be regarded as ertain that the book is a unity, the same conclusion holds implicitly of the narrative portions as well, i.e., they too are scribed to the hand of one Daniel, a contemporary of Vebuchadnezzar. It is well known, of course, that our book s written partly (i.-ii. 4a, viii.-xii.) in Hebrew and partly ii. 4b-vii.) in Aramaic, but this difference of language (of which no perfectly satisfactory explanation has yet been ffered) does not appear to have anything to do with difference f authorship. Again, the variety of dates to which the isions in chapters vii.-xii. are assigned, may possibly indiate that the author composed the book in instalments, eparated by varying periods of time, but does not militate n the least against a single authorship. The literary critic has learned, however, that it is not

lways safe to trust appearances, and the opinion may be aid to be now practically universal among scholars that the book of Daniel belongs not to the age of the close of the Babylonian empire, but to the beginning of the Maccabæan period. There must be strong reasons in favour of a conclusion which has commended itself to such a variety of ninds. It is easy enough to understand how an older generation of Biblical scholars, including such honoured names as that of Dr. Pusey, should have considered it their duty to resist to the utmost any such conclusion, as militating against the religious value of the book. It is with a little sadness, but with no surprise, considering the time when he lived, that we read these sentences in Dr. Pusey's Daniel: "The book of Daniel is especially fitted to be a battle-field between faith and unbelief. It admits of no half-measures. It is either Divine or an imposture. To write any book under the name of another, and to give it out to be his, is, in any case, a forgery, dishonest in itself, and destructive of all trustworthiness. But the case as to the book of Daniel, if it were not his, would go far beyond even this. The writer, were he not Daniel, must have lied on a most frightful scale, ascribing to God prophecies which were never uttered, and miracles which are assumed never to have been wrought. In a word, the whole book would be one lie in the name of God." It is a simple matter to disparage Dr. Pusey for giving utterance to such sentiments, but it would have been a marvel if he had thought differently. And if we consider his position untenable, and believe that we have learned a more excellent way than Dr. Pusey, it is only reasonable to ask that we should deal patiently with those who still cling to ancient tradition, and that we should exhibit the same reverence for Scripture as was shown by that great scholar. It is worthy of note in this connexion that Dr. Driver, the present occupant of Dr. Pusey's chair, has recently published in the Cambridge Bible Series a work on Daniel, which all competent judges who have read it will admit to be the equal of his predecessor's work in learning, painstaking research and reverence, while most will feel that it brings a sense of reality and appeals to them with a force to which the older work is a stranger. No better model, indeed, for the tone of religious controversy could be desired than is found in Dr. Driver's book.

Increasing study of the Old Testament itself, and especially of the extra-canonical literature of the Jews, has done away with Dr. Pusey's short and sharp way of settling the question,

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and has placed us in a position to form a juster judgment. We have learned, in short, to see in the book of Daniel a Jewish Apocalypse; and the study of Apocalyptic Literature, it is not too much to say, has done more within the last few years to clear up the meaning of Daniel in the Old Testament and of the book of Revelation in the New Testament than was accomplished for those books in the course of all the preceding centuries. From being the despair of serious students, from being the happy hunting-ground of fanciful exegesis, from being the armoury whence rival Churches nave in turn drawn weapons wherewith to assail one another, these books have come to be amongst the simplest in he Bible, and have proved once more to be what they were at first, but afterwards ceased to be, profitable for doctrine, or reproof, for correction, for instruction in righteousness.

As in the case of every ancient literary work that has come lown to us, there is both external and internal evidence to be aken into account in fixing the date of Daniel.

A. EXTERNAL EVIDENCE.

- (1) The Place of the Book in the Canon.—The second of the livisions of the Hebrew Canon, the Prophets, was probably ot closed till near B.C. 200. In any case it was certainly pen long after 536, the third year of Cyrus. How then omes it that the book of Daniel is placed not amongst the Prophets but in the third category, amongst the Writings, he list of which was not fixed till about the Christian era, or, t earliest, say about B.C. 100? The explanation is simple nough if the book dates from the Maccabæan period. It ould not be included in the Canon of the Prophets because t was not in existence when that Canon was closed.
- (2) Allusions in other Literature,—Nothing can be built upon Ezek. xiv. 14, 20, xxviii. 3. The first two of these passages ead: "Though these three men, Noah, Daniel, and Job, vere in it, they should deliver but their own souls by their ghteousness, saith the Lord God"; the third, "Behold nou art wiser than Daniel; there is no secret hid from thee". t is impossible, upon any view, that Ezekiel can refer in the

first two passages to Daniel's fidelity which led to his being cast into the den of lions, for that event, according to the book of Daniel itself, happened after the conquest of Babylon, i.e., about B.C. 538, nearly sixty years after the date of Ezekiel's prophecy (594). Again, the expression "thou art wiser than Daniel" (penned B.C. 588) suggests that the prophet has in view an ancient patriarch and sage rather than a younger contemporary of his own. We may compare Jer. xv. 1, "though Moses and Samuel stood before me". But not to press this argument, it is clear in any case that the language of Ezekiel proves nothing as to the existence of a book of Daniel. Again, it is surely strange that this book, if it was in existence as early as about B.C. 536, should have left no trace of its influence upon the post-exilic prophetical literature. How differently the case stands with books like Jeremiah, whose influence is so marked upon his successors. Neither is there any allusion to Daniel in Ben Sira's "praise of famous men" (written circa B.C. 200), which names Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, and the twelve minor prophets. Though this is an argument e silentio, its force is very great, seeing how full is the catalogue given of Israel's worthies. It is hardly conceivable that Ben Sira, had he known the book of Daniel, could have written: "Neither was there a man born like unto Joseph" (Sir. xlix. 15), especially in view of the close parallels between the story of Joseph and that of Daniel.

The first clear reference to Daniel is in the Sibylline Oracles (iii. 388 ff.), dating circa B.C. 140. The next is in 1 Mac. ii. 59-60 (circa B.C. 100), where Mattathias alludes to the deliverance of Shadrach, Meshach, and Abed-nego, as well as to that of Daniel. Josephus, of course, refers to the book, although his knowledge of its contents appears to be rather vague; and his story about its having been shown to Alexander the Great by the high priest Jaddua, is now universally recognised to be a fiction. In the New Testament the only allusion to Daniel is in Matt. xxiv. 15, Mark xiii. 14 ("the abomination of desolation"), but the influence of the book is very marked, especially in the Apocalypse.

So much for the external evidence. We find no clear reference to the book prior to circa B.C. 140.

B. INTERNAL EVIDENCE.

- (I) It has been pointed out that the book contains no allusion to certain events which we should have expected to interest deeply a Jewish contemporary of Nebuchadnezzar and Cyrus; e.g., the captivity of King Jehoiakim, the destruction of Jerusalem by the Chaldeans, the Edict of Cyrus and the Return. The force of this argument will be best appreciated f we contrast the interest evinced by Jeremiah and Ezekiel in the history of their time. But, more important,
- (2) Such allusions as do occur are frequently incorrect.
- (a) There was no siege and capture of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar in the third year of Jehoiakim (B.C. 605). The testimony of Jeremiah and of the Books of Kings is decisive on this point. Nebuchadnezzar's invasion of Judah was subsequent to, and could only have been subsequent to, the battle of Carchemish the following year (604).
- (b) Belshazzar is called the son of Nebuchadnezzar, and King of the Chaldæans. Both these statements are wrong. Nebuchadnezzar was succeeded by his son Evil-Merodach, and he by the short-reigned Neriglissar and Laborosoarchod, after which Nābūnāid (Nabonidos), a usurper, seized the throne. Nābūnāid was the last king of the Chaldæans; his son Belsarutzur, probably the same as the Belshazzar of Daniel, is named on numerous contract-tablets, but always by the semi-technical title "the king's son," the equivalent of the modern "crown prince". However important a personage Belshazzar was, then, and he does seem from all accounts to have been more energetic than his father Nābūnāid, he was never king, and neither he nor his father had any blood relationship to Nebuchadnezzar.
- (c) "Darius the Mede" is a personage for whom there is no room in history. We have an account of the conquest of Babylon in contemporary records drawn up by both the contending parties, Nābūnāid and Cyrus, and we learn that this conquest was the work of Cyrus. Darius the Mede cannot be identified with Xenophon's Cyaxares II., who is himself merely a figure of romance, nor, as Mr. Pinches proposes,

with such a subordinate of Cyrus as Gubaru (Gobryas) who played a prominent part in the capture of Babylon. To the writer of Daniel, Darius the Mede is not only the conqueror of Babylon but "king" in the most absolute sense. Nothing could show this more clearly than his words: "This Daniel prospered in the reign of Darius and in the reign of Cyrus the Persian" (Dan. vi. 28). In all probability the writer of Daniel had a confused recollection of the fact that Darius Hystaspis in B.C. 521 re-conquered Babylon after it had revolted from his sway. This suggestion is supported by the circumstance that it was Darius Hystaspis who first divided the empire into a number of satrapies, just as Darius the Mede is said to have done in Daniel.

- (d) The use of the word "Chaldmans" as the name of a learned caste and not of a nation is a decided indication of lateness. Professor Schrader, one of the very highest authorities, writes: "(This sense) is unknown to the Assyrian-Babylonian language; has, wherever it occurs, formed itself after the end of the Babylonian Empire, and is thus an indication of the post-exilic composition of the book". In like manner Professor Sayce, a witness who is certainly not prejudiced against traditional opinions, declares: "It is a sense which was unknown in the age of Nebuchadnezzar or Cyrus, and its employment implies not only that the period was long past when Babylonia enjoyed a political life of its own, but also that the period had come when a Jewish writer could assign to a Hebrew word a signification derived from its Greek equivalent. This last fact is of considerable importance if we would determine the age of the book of Daniel. . . . In the eyes of the Assyriologist this use of the word Kasdim would alone be sufficient to indicate the date of the work with unerring certainty" (Monuments, p. 535).
 - (3) The language of the book tells the same tale.
- (a) It contains at least fifteen *Persian* words, and these occur not only in dealing with events or institutions subsequent to Cyrus' conquest of Babylon, but come in in the most matter of course fashion in connexion with purely Babylonian history. Now it has been pointed out by Dr. Driver that

the language of the contract-tablets, etc., which have come down to us from the age of Nebuchadnezzar, shows no trace of Persian admixture, and he argues forcibly that the language of Israel was still less likely to have been so influenced.

- (b) But, even more extraordinary upon the traditional view of its authorship, the book contains at least three Greek words: κίθαρις (in the form ķîtharos), ψαλτήριον (in the form bsanterîn), and συμφωνία (in the form ṣūmpōnyah). While the first of these is an ancient Greek word, found in Homer, and might conceivably have found its way to Babylonia by B.C. 536, the second occurs first in Aristotle, and the third in Plato. Even so brilliant a theorist as Professor Margoliouth has not succeeded in offering any plausible explanation of their occurrence in the Daniel of tradition.
- (c) The Aramaic (often misnamed Chaldee) of the book belongs to the Western dialect, and, like the Aramaic of Ezra, is of the type spoken in and about Palestine. Now, at what period would a Jewish writer have been likely to write in Aramaic, and to assume that this language would be generally understood by his countrymen? Certainly not during the Exile or shortly after it. It used to be supposed that the Jews during the Captivity forgot their native Hebrew and adopted the Babylonian Aramaic of their conquerors. So far from this being the case, we know that, in the time of Nehemiah more than a century after the Return, Hebrew was still normally the language both of writing and of daily life. The Aramaic which Israel gradually adopted was not of the Babylonian form at all, but that spoken by their immediately surrounding neighbours, when they were once more settled in their own land. On the other hand, the language spoken at the court of Babylon under Nebuchadnezzar was certainly not Aramaic, although the author of Daniel appears to assume that it was in that language that the magicians and astrologers addressed the king. On this point, again, Professor Sayce has a claim to be heard, for it concerns a field of research that is quite his own. What then does he tell us? "Aramaic indeed had been spoken in Babylonia long before the time of Nebuchadnezzar, but it was spoken

by the Aramaic tribes who had settled there. It had also become to a certain extent the language of international trade, and it is very probable that it was commonly used as a means of intercourse with foreign populations. But it would have been the last language to be spoken at the court of a great Babylonian monarch by his native subjects, more especially by those who belonged to the learned class. The wisdom of Babylonia, including its astrology, its pseudo-science of omens, and its interpretation of dreams, was stored up in a literature which was written in the two old languages of the country-Semitic Babylonian and agglutinative Sumerianand to have discarded them for the language of the trader and the conquered Aramaean would have been an act of sacrilege. Nor would Nebuchadnezzar and his courtiers have been likely to understand what was said. The statement, therefore, that the king of Babylonia was addressed by his native subjects in Aramaic proves that its author was unacquainted with the real language of the Chaldwans" (ibid., p. 536).

As we hinted a moment ago, it must have been centuries after the Return before Aramaic became as familiar to the Jews as their native Hebrew. If then we assume, as we appear to be entitled to do, that the Aramaic of Daniel is from the author's own pen, and not a translation by some one else, we have once more a strong argument in favour of a late date for the book

As to the Hebrew of Daniel, it is of the distinctly late type that followed the age of Nehemiah, being most nearly akin to that found in the books of Chronicles, Esther and Ecclesiastes. Such a competent authority as Dr. Driver declares: "The verdict of the language of Daniel is thus clear. The Persian words presuppose a period after the Persian Empire had been well established; the Greek words demand, the Hebrew supports, and the Aramaic permits a date after the conquest of Palestine by Alexander" (B.C. 332).

(4) The argument from the theology of the book is one that must not be pressed unduly; but, on the other hand, nothing is clearer than that there is a development of doctrine in the Old Testament and that some of the dogmas which approach

most nearly to the Christian standpoint arose late in the history of the Jewish Church. Now, it is undeniable, as Dr. Driver has pointed out, that the doctrines of the Messiah, of angels, of the resurrection, and of a judgment on the world, are taught with greater distinctness and in a more developed form in the book of Daniel than anywhere else in the Old Testament, and in a way that reminds us of the book of Enoch (circa B.C. 160-100).

(5) The interest of the book, which, explain it as one pleases, culminates in the relations subsisting between the Jews and Antiochus, makes it probable, in accordance with the whole analogy of Scripture, that the book belongs to this period. There is no known exception in the Old Testament to the rule that the prophets, even when their message deals with far distant days, have in view the needs of the people of their own day. They rebuke their sins, they comfort their sorrows, they strengthen their hopes, they banish their fears. But of all this there is not a trace in the book of Daniel, if it was written under Cyrus. Its message is avowedly for the time of the end, it is a sealed book till then. Our impression as to the Maccabæan date of the book is strengthened when we observe how it is only in dealing with this period that the author is either accurate or detailed; for the period that precedes we have seen that he is often misinformed; and for the period that follows the year 165, with almost the single exception of his prediction of the death of Antiochus, his language is vague and general.

Combining all these considerations, we do not hesitate to conclude not only that the book was written to strengthen and encourage the Jews in the dark troubled period of Antiochus' reign, but that it was written by one who himself lived in that period. Everything it contains, without exception, agrees with this supposition. The very first chapter of Daniel with its description of the abstinence practised by the Hebrew youths, must have appealed to men who were tortured for declining to eat swine's flesh. The refusal of the three children to worship the golden image in the plains of Dura, and the story of their marvellous deliverance, could

not fail to strengthen the resolution of those Jews who refused homage to the Abomination of Desolation (בַּעֵל שָׁבִיּה, a characteristic transformation of Desolation (בַּעַל שָׁבִיּה, or altar to Zeus Olympius, which Antiochus had erected to his favourite deity on the altar of burnt-offering. Similar would be the lesson taught by the story of Daniel's persistence in prayer and of the reward of his fidelity. And how welcome also to down-trodden Jews to hear of how the mightiest monarchs and the greatest world-empires had perished before the breath of the Almighty, of how Nebuchadnezzar's pride had been humbled by his strange insanity; of how Belshazzar's impiety was punished by his defeat and death.

Now, it so happened that by the Maccabæan age a school of thought and a species of literature had been introduced by the scribes, which could be turned to excellent account by one who had the parenetic aims we have described. Midrash and Haggādā, which we already encounter in the books of Chronicles (circa B.C. 300), were in full bloom. These were edifying tales regarding ancient worthies, some of them being simply expansions of Old Testament narratives, some of them having a traditional basis, some of them simply creations of the imagination. Such tales, coupled with predictions put in the mouth of an ancient sage or saint, meet us at every turn in the Jewish Apocalypses, which began to be composed about this time, and of which Daniel is the earliest and one of the most notable illustrations. Such works are always pseudonymous. No longer was there any living prophet; a want that was deeply felt; but there was abundance of religious fervour, and a burning zeal for ancestral law and customs. The men who were possessed of literary gifts, despairing of a hearing if they wrote in their own name, addressed the people in the name of some authoritative messenger of God of a former age. The method is unquestionably a strange one, viewed from a Western standpoint, and raises a somewhat difficult psychological question. But, account for it as we may, it is a fact that a whole series of Jewish writers, of good character, with praiseworthy aims,

and evidently without the smallest consciousness of ill faith, put forward compositions of their own under an ancient name. We do not regard as a parallel to this the use of Moses' name in the Pentateuch; that belongs to a different category, the name of the traditional lawgiver being quite appropriately employed to sanction what were simply developments of his system. But we may find an analogue in a cognate field, that of the Hokhma literature. It is difficult to read the book of Ecclesiastes without receiving the impression that its author, one of the latest in the Old Testament, intends to be taken for Solomon. Outside Scripture we have such well-known illustrations as the book of Enoch, the Apocalypses of Elijah and Zephaniah, the Testaments of the Twelve Patriarchs, and many others. Long after the Old Testament and the inter-testamental periods the same practice continued to prevail. It is possibly illustrated within the New Testament itself (? the Second Epistle of Peter), and after the close of the New Testament Canon, Christian Apocalypses under ancient pseudonyms continued to be composed without scruple, down to the Middle Ages.

What, now, are we to hold as to the character of the narratives and the predictions contained in the book of Daniel? As to the latter, the answer, in view of the considerations we have adduced, must be that these are for the most part simply history written in the form of prediction. It may be regarded as certain that no other view than this will ever be established. There are, indeed, real predictions in the book, such as that about the death of Antiochus Epiphanes. But all these predictions concern the proximate future; there is no such thing as predictions four centuries beforehand about the battles and even skirmishes of the Seleucidæ and the Ptolemies, or the jealousies of Greek kings and Roman consuls and ambassadors. It is surely no loss but in every way a gain to be relieved of the dead weight of having to support the predictive character of this part of the book. The Christian apologist should be deeply grateful to the historical critic for having set in its proper light what, upon the traditional theory, was more allied to heathen mantic than to Divine

prophecy. Such predictions are simply the unfailing stock-in-trade of all Apocalyptic writings, and once we have recognised this, we take no more offence at this literary device than we do at the predictions about the Augustan age which Vergil puts in the mouth of a sibyl or a sage of remote antiquity. No doubt, this literary form is capable of being misunderstood, especially by prosaic minds; we know that both Daniel and the Sibyl have been misunderstood. It is intelligible enough, too, that such pseudepigraphic pseudo-predictions should be felt to be somewhat repellent in the domain of Scripture, but it is a fact that they have found a place there, and we have to make the best of it unless we take the strong step of excluding such books from the Canon.

Regarding the narrative portions of the book it is more difficult to speak with certainty. Even if we should have to adopt the conclusion that there is no firm historical basis for the incidents recorded in the first six chapters, the book would not be thereby robbed of its value for edification. But, on the other hand, we have no reason to conclude that the whole story of Daniel was invented by the writer. There appears to us to be a close analogy here between the book of Daniel and the book of Job. Recent investigations have rendered it extremely probable that a popular book of Job preceded the present highly dramatical work. The folk-lore of Israel told of a Job whose trials were as severe as his patience was unique. In like manner the author of the book of Daniel was probably acquainted with oral traditions regarding an ancient sage and hero of the name of Daniel; nay, he may possibly even have had at his command a written source which told of this Daniel's wisdom and of his fidelity to God under very trying circumstances. In short, to put it plainly, if any one feels that as yet his faith would be seriously shaken if the story of the lions' den and the fiery furnace had to be given up, he is perfectly entitled, for aught that criticism can prove to the contrary, to hold to these narratives as essentially true, although there is no doubt, as we have seen, that the historical setting of them is incorrect.

That is a safe halting-place meanwhile, but it is safer still to aim at a faith which shall be independent of such support, and to discover a permanent value in the book, even if its historical basis should prove to be extremely slender. If the personages who figure in the pages of Shakespeare or Goethe exercise an influence as great as if they had been flesh and blood realities instead of being merely the creations of a poet's genius; if Dives and Lazarus and the Good Samaritan appeal to us as powerfully as if the incidents recorded of them had actually occurred, why should Daniel lose his moral influence if the narratives concerning him should have to be relegated to the realm of edifying haggādā? Or, to put it still more plainly, if fiction is a legitimate vehicle for conveying a moral lesson outside Scripture, is its use to be forbidden within it? Or may we conclude that God who of old time spoke by divers portions and in divers manners, who found a place in His Word for allegory and parable, and fable and drama, did not disdain to employ this literary device as well? Shall we presume to exclude a book from the Canon, if its contents should prove to be fiction instead of history? Are we to ignore a writer's purpose and miss the lessons he teaches, because the literary form he employs, and which is now found to have been common when he lived, is not what tradition had taught us to expect?

It will not be denied that the beauty and literary power of the book of Daniel remain unimpaired upon any theory of its origin. Why should it be otherwise with its moral influence? For ourselves, we have no difficulty in assenting to the view expressed in varying language by such scholars as Bevan and Driver, and Prince and Marti that the author's confidence that God can deliver His people in the darkest hour, his sublime hope in a Messianic age, his anticipation of some of the most important doctrines of the New Testament, are the essential elements in the book, and these are independent of its date or its literary form.

J. A. SELBIE.

The Ancient Catholic Church from the Accession of Trajan to the Fourth General Council (A.D. 98-451).

By Robert Rainy, D.D., Principal of the New College. (International Theological Library.) Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1902. 8vo, pp. xii. + 539. Price 12s.

PRINCIPAL RAINY has hitherto been more widely known as a maker than as a writer of Church History: but his Three Lectures on the Church of Scotland, in reply to Dean Stanley, thirty years ago, and his Delivery and Development of Christian Doctrine gave ample evidence to the world of his gifts as an ecclesiastical historian. The volume before us will be welcomed not only on account of its high intrinsic value, but as an instalment substantially, we may assume, of what ministers of the Free Church have received from the author during his long and honourable tenure of the Chair of Church History in the New College. Not that the work is in any way less than up to date. On the contrary there is hardly a chapter which does not supply tokens of careful revision and supplementary labour, in the light of fresh research, recent criticism, or lately recovered "sources". But the book bears evidence, through an agreeable liveliness of style and occasional unconventionality in diction, of having been spoken, at least in part, to an audience.

The History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age having been overtaken by Prof. McGiffert of New York in an earlier volume of the International Theological Library, Principal Rainy's task begins with the close of the first Christian century, when the last surviving apostle had passed away. He divides his history into three main sections: (1) from the accession of Trajan in A.D. 98 to the death of Marcus Aurelius in 180; (2) from A.D. 180 to the Edict of Toleration in 313; (3) from A.D. 313 to the memorable Council of Chalcedon in Vol. XII.—No. 2.

451. No subdivision of the period between A.D. 98 and 313 is quite satisfactory; any division sunders artificially materials which are naturally connected: but the author's arrangement, amid some obvious drawbacks, has the advantage of indicating the diverse character (speaking generally) of the intellectual controversies which engaged the Church before and after A.D. 180. Prior to that date the Church struggled with a philosophy which endeavoured to absorb Christianity; subsequently to A.D. 180 the Church, at least in her leading intellectual centres, evolved a philosophy of her own, and doctrinal disputation was thenceforth carried on within a more distinctly Christian sphere.

It is impracticable, within the limit of little more than 500 pages, to treat every event and question of the Ancient Church with fulness of detail. In the first section most attention is given to Organisation, Sacraments, the Apologists, Gnosticism and Montanism; in the second, to Theological Schools, and to Christian Life, Worship and Discipline; while in the third division, Doctrinal Controversies, Ecclesiastical Personages, and Monasticism occupy most space. No topic, however, is omitted, although the Persecutions are dealt with more succinctly than some readers would have desired; and, in the brief but comprehensive sketch of Missionary Extension, no room is found for any account of Gregory Illuminator, the founder of the Armenian Church, or of our own Ninian of Galloway.

Principal Rainy's work is far from being a mere chronicle of events, description of usages, and account of Church controversies. Its signal excellence lies in the fact that it is largely a philosophy of history. It aims at indicating and tracing the various tendencies and forces which successively manifested themselves during the period, and moulded the course of Church history. An interesting chapter at the close, entitled "Processes of Change," is specially characteristic; for the volume, as a whole, is a history of gradual movements, trends, and developments. In the department of ecclesiastical organisation, for example, the process is graphically described through which, in the second century,

the outstanding Presbyter, who preached or presided, arranged divine service, distributed charity, or "carried on communications with other churches or the civil authorities," gradually and naturally developed into a bishop in the post-New Testament sense (pp. 34-38). One realises, under the author's guidance, how needless is the assumption of any special apostolic institution of the mono-episcopate: it grew.

As regards worship, the stages are indicated through which. in the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper, the presentation of gifts developed into the offering of sacrifices; and then "the thought of offering or sacrifice was extended to the whole eucharistic service," until eventually "the Passion of Our Lord is the sacrifice which we offer," and the elements become, with increasing approach to literalness, "the body and blood of Christ" (pp. 77-79, 231-232, 442, 516). There is also an effective exhibition of the process through which, in the fourth century, after the entrance of a multitude of merely nominal Christians into the Church, "the tendency to popularise Christianity" led to a church service "more full and imposing"; to the adoption of "objects and modes of worship hitherto regarded as characteristic of paganism"; and to the "heroes venerated by pagan countries or cities" being "replaced (for Christians) by the martyrs who had overcome in the name of Christ," and to whom now "direct appeals to intercede for us" were made (pp. 441, 452-454).

In the intellectual sphere, the author shows how the tendency to seek salvation "through a deeper and truer view of Christianity," and the aspiration after "a purer and more spiritual example of Christ" developed, under the misguidance of a philosophy which identified evil with matter, into Docetism and Gnosticism (pp. 95-96). We have a lucid account, also, of the gradual entrance of Christianity, under better auspices, into relation with that intellectual culture from which at first it was estranged; and of the special manifestation of such Christianised culture, first in some of the earlier Apologies, whose aim is "to insist on the affinities between Christianity and Greek thought" (p. 91), and afterwards in the Alexandrian School, through which a Christian philosophy was developed.

a "true Gnosis" presented, and a "genuine Christianity set forth on grand lines of thought, few, sufficient, self-evidencing" (pp. 163-164). In the two consecutive chapters on "Christian Thought and Literature," and "Christ and God," there is an excellent presentation of those divergent tendencies of theological thought in the ante-Nicene Church (particularly the various phases of Logos doctrine, of Modalistic and of Dynamical Monarchianism) which led up inevitably to the great Arian controversy. Once more, to take examples of this exhibition of "processes" from the sphere of Church life, our modern experience of any new sect which has "broken in on a conventional or slumbering Christianity," when it reaches afterwards the stage at which "the bulk of its accessions are from the children of the members," is very aptly used by Dr. Rainy to illustrate the manner in which the personnel of the primitive Church gradually changed from being a body of members "who, as the result of inward conflict," had "broken with their old ways," into a mixed multitude containing "many who were in the Church, because they had been brought up to it," and were inclined to "worldly ease" and "relaxation of discipline". The inevitable issue, on the part of those who are "intensely loyal to all the old traditions," is such a Puritan movement as Montanism (pp. 132-136). There is an equally interesting description of the development of the ascetic life (which from an early period was "commended as eminent Christian virtue for its own sake ") into "monastic holiness"; and the author enumerates and analyses with fine insight the "various motives which led men to monasteries," including the felt need of "selfpunishment" and "ascetic pain to operate as expiating sin"; "emancipation from the world of sense," and the "supremacy of spiritual affections"; "the desire to test one's own sincerity," since "religion that goes too easy may be suspected"; the attraction of "methodism-a ruled-off way of being good, so plain and distinctive that one might rest in it "; and finally, in some cases, the lower inducement of a refuge for "those who could have found shelter nowhere else" (pp. 302-304).

To not a few readers, the most attractive portions of

Principal Rainy's work will be his sketches of "ecclesiastical personages". Origen, with his heroic youth, "adamantine" literary labours, and theological system, "the first scheme of ordered Christian thought which aims at method and completeness"; Tertullian, "combining in himself the Puritan and High Churchman, with even a touch of the Fifth Monarchy man thrown in"; Cyprian, in whom "the turbid fervour of Tertullian (his Magister) is replaced by dignity, sagacity and leadership,"-" trenchant and peremptory " in his assertion of the unity of the Church as embodied in an orthodox and authentic episcopate, "to break loose" from which "is to cut oneself off from Christianity and from salvation"; the "commanding personality" of Athanasius, whose "statesmanship sustained by faith" was even more conspicuous than his abundant "intellectual resource and skill" in the great controversy which occupied his life; Jerome, full of the "genuine enthusiasms of a scholar," but "with no claim to theological power," sincerely devout, yet with "a Christianity that leant to the shallow, the legal, and the external type"; Augustine, that "epoch-making religious genius," who, mainly through his full "realisation of Sin and Grace," "gave a new significance to Christian dogmas, and struck a deeper and truer note of Christian experience"; Chrysostom, whose "fine Greek culture and natural gift of oratory were inspired by Christian devotedness and sincerity," whose reforming zeal was united with a "certain irritability," but whom unmerited persecution, bravely borne, disciplined into "Christian humility and submission" -these and other notable portraits in the historical gallery of the Ancient Church are drawn with graphic touch and with discriminating sympathy.

A further leading feature of Principal Rainy's work is its liberal tone and judicial fairness in dealing with the heretics of the period. Thus while he points out the "fantastic" features and more serious errors of Gnosticism, he recognises "on closer consideration" that the Gnostic systems "embody ideas which cannot be lightly set aside" (p. 96). "Let it be emphasised that the Gnostics with whom we have

to do were Christians," inspired with the conviction that "in the Gospel they have found the centre of truth and life" (p. 98). "It may be true that the Gnostics had a livelier sense of a great deliverance than was cherished by a good many of the so-called orthodox" (p. 105). Regarding Marcion, in particular, whom Polycarp designated as "the first-born of Satan," Dr. Rainy agrees substantially with the estimate of Harnack, and finds "much reason to believe that his impressions were fundamentally Christian" (p. 121). Similarly Arianism is expounded and criticised with fair recognition of Arius's ascetic virtue and enthusiasm (p. 326), and of his belief in the Son as the source of existence to all beings lower than Himself (p. 323), and as the "only begotten God," "the object of faith and worship" (p. 338). The author does full justice, also, to those among the "Semi-Arians" so called, whom Gwatkin more fairly designates as theological "conservatives," and who opposed the Nicene Creed, not from any doubt as to the true Divinity of the Son, but because they preferred to maintain his Divinity "in language more safe and more approved than that of Nicæa; for they thought the latter to be capable of a Sabellian sense, and in any case too new" (p. 339). Again, while no sympathy is indicated with the Pelagian doctrine of human ability (apart from inwardly operating grace), full credit is given to Pelagius for the conviction that the assertion of such ability was "the obvious way to sweep aside the pretexts on which men excuse themselves, and to force them to face their obligations" (p. 470). Regarding Nestorius, Dr. Rainy emphasises the now generally admitted fact that this alleged heretic "had no fair trial on the merits" (p. 387); and he maintains that there is "no evidence that Nestorius held a doctrine of two persons after the Incarnation"; while, even if he did, "personality is an idea full of mystery," and the "heresiarch" may have meant no more than that each of the two natures of Christ must have "a certain shadow of personality, a spiritual identity of its own" (p. 385). The author sums up his criticism of the Christological controversy with the sound and charitable remark, which applies to many other doctrinal

disputations, "It may well be believed that many on both sides received all that Scripture clearly teaches, though with diverging emphasis on different elements". "Nor does it seem possible to do more," he continues, "since the very words which we must use—as Person and Nature—prove to be at best approximate, and refuse to be restrained by invariable definitions when we carry them from man to God, and from God to man" (p. 404). We rise from the perusal of these portions of the volume with the assurance that if we had the misfortune to undergo a trial for alleged heresy, we should meet with fair consideration if Principal Rainy were one of our leading judges!

The editors of the International Theological Library are to be congratulated on a volume which fully maintains the high reputation of their admirable series of manuals.¹

HENRY COWAN.

1 A somewhat more careful revision of the Greek words used in the work is desirable, so as to remove such minor crrata as κοινώβιον (p. 294), ἀναχωρητοί (p. 299), ὁμούσια (p. 337), ὁμοιούσια (p. 348).

Christianity in the Apostolic Age.

By G. T. Purves, D.D., Recently Professor of New Testament Literature and Exegesis in Princeton Theological Seminary. London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1900. Cr. 8vo, pp. xx. + 343, and Maps. Price 6s.

This is a book to which it is hard to be perfectly just. Its general acquiescence in traditional results, touching both literature and historical facts (such as the survival of the year 64 by Peter and Paul), is apt to blind the critic to the amount of fresh thinking and historical insight which it contains. The latter features are most apparent in his treatment of Judæo-Christianity, its various phases and the successive stages of its development in Judæa itself. Thus the picture drawn from the Epistle of James, viewed as prior to the conference at Jerusalem, and from Hebrews-reflecting the perplexities of the days shortly before the revolt from Rome for those whose conception of Christianity in relation to Judaism had not matured in the meanwhile—is most natural and convincing. Similarly, the data of a like order afforded by Acts, especially in its earlier chapters, are used with much sympathy and success, the controlling aim of its author being justly conceived and used in the reading of his narrative. The one notable exception here is the handling of the "Tongues" at Pentecost, though, even so, the phenomena of glossolalia are well stated. Favourable instances are afforded by the pages on the primitive Apostolic preaching (pp. 44 ff.); the gradual development of conflict with the authorities in Jerusalem (pp. 48 ff.); Stephen and his crucial significance for the deeper interpretation of Old Testament religion as fulfilled in Christ: 1 Paul's conversion and its results. On the

¹ With Stephen "the first period of Apostolic Christianity had closed. The hope of the speedy conversion of the nation was extinguished. The consciousness of independence had been awakened in the disciples" (p. 55).

other hand, Dr. Purves holds fast to the old "North Galatian" theory in a way which shows little appreciation of the relative difficulties of the two views; and he quite fails to grasp the eschatological outlook of 2 Thess. ii., holding that the "falling away" is from within the Church, and not rather from Judaism, and in general not recognising the conventional lines of the Apocalyptic in both the Thessalonian epistles.

Perhaps the weakest part of the book is its treatment of the problem of Acts xv. and Gal. ii, 1-10. It makes the paradoxical statement that "the visit of Galatians was certainly a public and representative one," in face of the fact (1) that Paul speaks of no human initiative in the visit save his own, and (2) that he describes himself as expounding his gospel in Jerusalem "privately before them who were of repute," and the "false brethren," who opposed him, as "privily brought in" (sc. to his conference with the leaders), and as coming in "privily to spy out our liberty". Yet our author states that Gal. ii. 2-5, which contains these references (and none other) to persons present at the conference, "represents the Church as a whole as supporting his position"; while on the other hand he questions whether the whole Church is represented in Acts xv. as present at the deliberations ending in the decision of the Apostles and the Elders (in the teeth of the reference to the "multitude" as present, ver. 12). It is not as though it had been to the interest of Paul's argument to obscure the public character of what he regarded as the vindication at headquarters of the independence of his Gentile Gospel. Quite the contrary; and Dr. Purves does not even attempt to explain why, on his theory, Paul notices the understanding that he should remember the poor, but omits all reference to the four Abstinences of Acts xv. 20, a point which his critics would be quick to lay hold of. Surely, too, it is most unlikely that Paul would be "still unknown by face to the Churches of Judæa" (Gal. i. 22) up to the time of his visit in Acts, after he had ministered the relief of the Antiochian Church to the Judæan Churches. For (1) it is an assumption unwarranted by the text of Acts xi. 20 f., that it was only to the elders in Jerusalem that he conveyed alms (even though the reference to Jerusalem in xii. 25 should not be an interpolation, as the textual difficulty suggests). And (2) the nature of the context requires that the words of Gal. i. 22 mean virtually that Paul had not given any Judæan church the chance of knowing him, much less been instructed, in Judæa. He had not "shown his face" there at all. Similarly as regards Peter's visit to Antioch, he overlooks (1) that Peter, in eating with Gentiles, was only doing what he had done long before, Acts xv., in the case of Cornelius (action which he had justified when challenged, xi. 3, 17); and (2) that what Paul implies as the explanation of Peter's inconsistency, is not a recurrence of conscientious scruple but a temporary change of policy ("dissimulation"), to avoid criticism from stricter Jews than himself.1

As samples, on the other hand, of just and thoughtful observations which often surprise one amid a good deal that is rather lacking in distinction, take the following: "The prophets were the living evidence of the continuance of the prophetic office of Messiah by whose Spirit they spake". Their "existence in the Apostolic Church testifies to the belief that it was an age of revelation": "so that 'on the foundation of the apostles and prophets' was the Church held to be established" (Eph. ii. 20). The mission of Barnabas and Saul (Acts xiii. 1 ff.) "was both a divine vocation and an enterprise of the Antiochian Church," "acting in the persons of the three remaining prophets and teachers who laid their hands upon the brethren". How much confusing talk about "orders" in this connexion is refuted in the single word we have placed in italics. "The most natural explanation" of the authoritative language of the letter in Acts xv. 24-29, "is that the eldership of Jerusalem [with the apostles at its head] was considered, by the Judaic Christians and by the mixed Churches of Syria which had

¹ Hort (Judaistic Christianity, p. 81) suggests that they had been sent by James to warn Peter to be discreet.

originated from Jewish missions, in much the same light in which the Sanhedrim of Jerusalem was by the Jews." "The directions about church officials," in the Pastorals, "are given not in the least for the purpose of advancing the power of any office . . . but to secure high character and faithful teaching in the officials already established." Our author's defence of the Pastorals as genuinely Pauline is distinctly good; yet he will not hear of their falling within the known life of Paul, and fails to see the serious objections to a date after the Neronian persecution, and to the occurrence of the reference to Trophimus (as left at Miletus) in a letter written from Rome to Timothy in the vicinity of Miletus. Other doubtful judgments are, the dating of I Peter from Babylon, after 64, and during Paul's lifetime; the acceptance of both the integrity and authenticity of 2 Peter (dependent on Jude); and the placing of all three Synoptics (the first by Matthew, perhaps both in Aramaic and Greek) in the seventh decade A.D.

Such things certainly tend to shake the reader's trust in his author's competence, and they have led some critics to overlook the real contributions to our knowledge of the Apostolic Age provided by this unpretentious yet well ininformed volume. It is simply and flowingly written; and but for its unusual inequality of value in different parts, is admirably adapted for the general reader. As it is, it would make a good textbook for a class of thoughtful lay students of the New Testament, under the guidance of a leader familiar with historical criticism. Dr. Purves was already known favourably to students of early Christianity by his conscientious and sober, rather than brilliant, book on The Testimony of Justin Martyr to Early Christianity, 1888. But the present book, written after eight years in the Chair of New Testament Literature and Exegesis in Princeton Theological Seminary, makes one regret still more his comparatively early death, which occurred in the summer of last vear.

Kant's gesammelte Schriften.

Herausgegeben von der Königlich. Akademie der Wissenschaften, Band X., Zweite Abtheilung: Briefwechsel. Erster Band, 1747-1788. Berlin: George Reimer, 1900. 8vo, pp. xix. +532. Price 10s.

THE complete works of Kant edited and published by the Royal Academy of Sciences of Berlin are now in an advanced state, and one is glad to know that the works of that illustrious thinker are accessible in a shape worthy of his great historic significance. The volume before us contains the correspondence of Kant and his friends from the year 1747 to the year 1788. It adds greatly to the interest as well as to the intelligibility of the letters of Kant, that we have also the letters of his correspondents, which supply the occasion of his letters. It is not possible to give a detailed account of all the topics discussed in these letters, nor to stay to identify his correspondents, nor to measure and weigh their historic importance. Perhaps the most important thing about them now is that they did correspond with Kant, and that he wrote letters to them. For as the years pass on Kant bulks larger and larger before the eyes of those who know. Almost every philosophical inquiry and almost every problem of philosophy dates from Kant, and no student of philosophy can afford to be ignorant of him and his work.

It is of the highest interest to read the words of the man, not merely in the pages of his books, but also in the less formal letters which he sent to his friends and acquaintances. They range in contents from the brief business epistle to the long letters in which he discusses and defends his views on cosmogony, or defends and illustrates his thesis that all arithmetical judgments are synthetic. There is a singular lack of what men may call the distinctively human interest

in these letters. No love, no courtship, no marriage, no trace of the great emotions, or the strong passions which so often dominate men, and lead so often to the tragedies of life. But there is emotion, and there is passion of a kind, but these are directed towards interests which lie far from the path which ordinary men tread. There is deep emotion in the letters which tell of the moment when the outline of the critical method of philosophy came into clear consciousness, and there is something sublime in the intensity of his feeling in the presence of the might and majesty of moral law. Kant had many interests, though these were not of the ordinary kind, and these interests appear in this correspondence.

We turn with special interest to the letters of Lambert and to the replies of Kant, partly because of their fine tone and spirit, and partly because they deal with a period of Kant's literary activity, and with a topic which has been thrust into the background by the epoch-making significance of the critical philosophy. L. Lambert was a distinguished mathematician and astronomer, and had published a work entitled Cosmological Letters on the Arrangement of the Structure of the World, and he writes to Kant on the similarity of their views. Lambert explains that he had not seen Kant's book, and expresses his gladness in finding his own views set forth with such power in the works of Kant. The correspondence is pleasant to read, and is highly creditable to both parties.

Coincidences of this kind have been the occasion of lasting and bitter controversy, and in some cases have become international. But Kant acknowledged that Lambert had worked independently, and both were gratified that their views had support each from the other. In the letters of Lambert we have a pretty full outline of a metaphysic which he was about to elaborate, and an offer to Kant to work together and to collaborate in the writing of a philosophy Kant politely declined.

There are interesting letters to and from Moses Mendelssohn, and to and from Herder, in which many topics are discussed in a somewhat cursory manner, but in which we can trace some of the great thoughts of Kant in crude outline. But we cannot dwell on these. Nor can we dwell on the letters which refer to the *Critique of Pure Reason*, full of interest though these are. These letters find their proper place in an account of the life of Kant, and afford to the student of his philosophy something which helps to elucidate the genesis and evolution of the thought of Kant. It is well to have in this superb edition all the written words of the Master.

JAMES IVERACH.

Ethics, Descriptive and Explanatory.

By S. E. Mezes, Ph.D., Professor of Philosophy, University of Texas. New York: The Macmillan Company. 8vo, pp. xix. + 435. Price 10s. 6d. net.

As stated in the preface the aim of this treatise is "to construct a positive or purely scientific theory of ethics, and to give a naturalistic account of all the aspects of morality and immorality, in so far, of course, as space limitations permit" (p. viii.). The author is so far aware that such an investigation will not exhaust the field of ethical study, nor deal with all the contents of ethics. He protests that he does not undervalue, or fail to recognise the need for a metaphysic of ethic. But he thinks that the phenomena of ethics may be studied apart from all metaphysical implications. "If science showed that morality is merely a human characteristic that enables the fittest to survive, just as protective blotches and animal appetites similarly aid their possessors, and if it showed that man himself is merely an ephemeral incident in the everlasting impact of atoms and eddying approach and crash of molar masses, then would man and morality with him be shown to be insignificant indeed from the cosmic point of view. From this point of view morality and man can be shown to be significant only if spiritual as well as physical facts can be brought to knowledge, indeed, only if the universe can be shown to be essentially spiritual, and so friendly to and appreciative of human morality" (pp. viii.-ix.). Professor Mezes thinks it is natural and proper to study morality in its setting as one of the comparatively familiar and accessible facts of human experience, before embarking upon the precarious enterprise of discovering its cosmical bearings. We are careful to use his own language in the statement of the problem he has in hand. We may

say that the reference to the cosmos is his, not ours. We would state it differently, and would express the infinite character of morality in another way.

Using his own language and phraseology we would raise the question, Can one study the phenomena of morality scientifically if the reference to the cosmic element is left out of account? Is he right in the assumption that metaphysics alone can give knowledge of spiritual facts? If the spiritual is an invariable element in all human experience, then no science which deals with the mental life of man can afford to neglect that element. And ethics can least of all afford to neglect spiritual facts, for these are the very breath of its life.

We should be glad to have an ethic descriptive and explanatory, but can an ethic be so which relegates all spiritual facts to the domain and the dominion of metaphysic? One of the presuppositions of a possible ethic is that we have to deal with the life and conduct of a being who is, in a measure at least, self-conscious, self-determined, capable of forming for himself an ideal of life, and so far able to carry it into effect. It does not help the matter to protest, as our author does, that he is not unfriendly to metaphysics, that he is prepared to welcome any rational attempt to indicate the cosmic worth of morality, for while he says this, he proceeds on the assumption that a sufficient scientific account of ethical phenomena can be given even after the cosmic reference is altogether ignored. Our contention is that a scientific description of morality must include all the facts with which morality is conversant whatever these facts may be.

The book is not what, from a careful perusal of the preface, we expected it to be. The author has not respected the limitations he laid down in the preface. He has included the spiritual facts; indeed, he could not leave them out. He seems ever and anon to remind himself of the limitations under which he set to work, but immediately the spiritual returns and he finds that he cannot dispense with it. The

reader will readily notice this significant fact.

The main part of the book begins with an Introduction, consisting of two chapters, one dealing with Definition, Scope and Methods, and the other with Moral and Non-Moral Phenomena. Of the first chapter it is not necessary to say much. It is quite a competent statement of the problem, scope and methods of ethics. It might be possible to make some qualification of some of the positions, but on the whole the statement is adequate. We would most decidedly insist on qualifying some of the statements of the second chapter, which deal with moral and non-moral phenomena. As to what are moral phenomena, we may rest content with the author's statement. "All phenomena which arouse moral emotions or on which moral judgment may be passed, or which are either rewarded or punished with a sense that that is their desert, are moral phenomena. In a word, anything for which a man is held responsible by himself or by others, is thereby regarded as a moral phenomenon" (p. 18). This is good as far as it goes, but there are moral phenomena which cannot be brought under this rubric. There is a tacit reference to law or to a standard of action in our author's description of moral phenomena. Right, obligation, duty, responsibility, accountableness, are aspects of moral phenomena which have a reference to law or a standard. But a different category is required if one is to describe character as moral, and another category still is needed if we are to bring in the notion of the good. The description of moral phenomena leaves out of account that moral judgment which estimates by reference to an end, which is the category of the good, and that other, which estimates what we call virtue, which is the quality of character which corresponds to the performance of good conduct, the fitness of a man to attain the end.

The limitation of moral phenomena to that which can be expressed in terms of law has some curious consequences. Before we point these out, we shall describe briefly the results to which our author comes. He rightly points out that inorganic matter is non-moral, that the vegetable kingdom is also excluded from moral phenomena, and that all the

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lower animals are not looked at as responsible. Man alone is moral, but not all human characteristics are moral according to our author. It may be well to let the writer speak for himself. "The facts so far examined support the conclusion that only voluntary actions are moral phenomena, and that may turn out to be the correct view. There are apparent exceptions, however, and these must be examined before the conclusion can be accepted with full confidence. All are familiar with the convenient division of psychic states into the volitional, the intellectual, and the emotional. Now, it is commonly supposed that men are responsible not only for volitional, but also for emotional and intellectual states, and moreover it seems often to be assumed that men are responsible for their habits, even when these have become so fixed as to lie beyond the control of the will. Vindictive feelings, suspicious thoughts, intemperate habits, will serve as examples of non-volitional states for which men are apparently held responsible. If the appearance is founded on fact, it cannot be maintained that only volitional states are moral phenomena" (p. 25). Our author comes to the conclusion that neither emotional states, intellectual states, nor fixed habits are moral phenomena. It would seem that if a man should lose control of himself he should cease to be responsible. Instead of arguing the question we shall allow the author to answer himself. "No voluntary action performs itself. In every case the agent in entirety is present, or at least is prevented by no external hindrance from being present. If in acting he fails to consider any interest involved, thisaside from his being unduly hurried, or otherwise disturbed or interfered with, a case of coercion impairing the full voluntariness of the action-is determined by his own character and by nothing else. . . . Properly speaking, then, the action is approved or disapproved not in itself, but as representing and indicating the agent and his character. And the agent is as responsible for his voluntary actions as he is for his own character or inmost self" (pp. 35-36).

Are we to conclude that emotional states, intellectual states, and fixed habits form no part of a man's character?

It would seem so, for they are said not to be moral phenomena, and a man's character is a moral phenomenon. This is not the only instance in which the author disregards his professed conclusion regarding the non-moral character of emotional and intellectual states. He broadly states that "complete morality is inspired by the emotions, in addition to being guided by the intellect, and held strong by the will" (p. 53). Surely these things which inspire and guide morality are themselves moral.

The truth is that our author in his zeal for the morality of voluntary action has forgotten for the moment that the voluntary cannot be isolated from the other aspects of man, except by an abstraction. He has forgotten that thought has also a volitional side. Is not attention both an act of thought and an act of will? And emotion is needed to kindle thought as well as to inspire action. But on this we do not dwell. Passing to the treatise itself the first part deals with subjective morality, and the second part with objective morality. The successive chapters of the first part deal with the topics Subjective Morality, Voluntary Action, The Adult Conscience, The Psychic Cause of Conscience, Birth and Growth of Conscience in the Child, and Birth and Growth of Conscience in the Race. We give an extract from the summary of results, as waning space prevents a fuller treatment. "Looking for the origin of conscience, and having reason to think that it grew out of some of the qualities characteristic of man as distinguished from other animals, an investigation was set on foot with a view to discovering those qualities. The result of this investigation was the discovery that Will-power differences man from other animals. Looking then for the results of the appearance of volition, it was seen that it gave rise to thinking, tool-making, and religion, all in the main helpful activities, it also gave birth to intelligent egoism, which tended to destroy man's chief resources for survival, viz., the associated state. But here it appeared that conscience, public and private, developed out of social instincts and volition, and that putting an intelligent check on intelligent but egoistic volition, it preserved the human race from extinction" (pp. 183-184).

There are many elements of interest in the process of investigation which led the author to the conclusion summarised above. Perhaps the chief among them is the attempt to make the volitional the dominating element in the life of man. Many other eminent authorities are with Professor Mezes in this contention, the chief of whom is, perhaps, Professor James of Harvard. But it is too large a question to be dealt with here.

The second part of the treatise is occupied with a discussion and description of objective morality. This really becomes a description of the virtues: courage, temperance, benevolence, justice, and the others. For this part of the work we feel great admiration. It is well done. The discussion is full, clear, learned, and altogether competent. He strives to go down to the foundation and origin of these virtues, to trace their growth and development, and to set them forth in their highest worth, as they have been realised in the best races of men, and further, to set them forth in their ideal perfection as they have not yet been realised anywhere. We are the more satisfied with the discussion inasmuch as the author has disregarded the limitations he had ostensively set to moral phenomena, in the first part of his work. In proof of this we quote only one passage out of many that might be quoted. "All authorities insist on the morality of beneficence. But benevolence also received early mention. To be sure, among ethical writers it was first prominently mentioned, as far as I am aware, by Thomas Aguinas in the thirteenth century, there taking the form of love, and being placed with the other two of the Pauline triad, faith and hope, above Plato's list, and regarded as supervisory of it. But as the mention of Paul suggests, benevolence was recognised long before Aquinas. Indeed, in addition to being recognised by Paul, it was recognised by Christ, by Buddha, and by Confucius, as we'll as by Mohammed, and may accordingly be described as the distinctive contribution of monotheism to the solution of the

moral problem. More primitive opinion was well aware that in the moral man the will is strong for courage and temperance, and the insight of intellect just and wise. But monotheistic religions first taught, both in impressive examples, and in the lives and precepts of devoted followers, that true morality is also, and it may be principally, a matter of the heart and feelings" (p. 203). How can this be, if emotional and intellectual states are not moral phenomena, as the author has expressly stated?

JAMES IVERACH.

The Principles of Morality and the Departments of the Moral Life.

By Wilhelm Wundt, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Leipzig. Translated by Margaret Hay Washburn, Ph.D., Warden of Sage College in Cornell University. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillans, 1901. 8vo, pp. xii. + 308. Price 7s. 6d.

Das Sittliche Leben. Eine Ethik auf Psychologischer Grundlage. Mit einem Anhang; Nietzsche's Zarathrustra-Lehre.

Von Hermann Schwarz. Privatdozent an der Universität Halle. Berlin: Reuther u. Reichard; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. 8vo, pp. xi. + 417. Price 7s. net.

A GENERATION ago Ethics were treated on familiar lines by sharply opposed schools. On the side of naturalism, psychological and ethical hedonism held the field; on the other side, intuitionalism made its protest, or idealism put forward its strong claims in the name of thought. Both of the volumes before us are significant of the newer work in ethics. We observe in them the modern appeal to the facts of experience, or to phenomenal science. In other words, these books illustrate the recoil from metaphysics. Wundt tells us that he declines to base ethics on metaphysics. holding rather that metaphysics should be based upon ethics. Waiving the question of the justification of the ethical judgment, he will accept it as a great fact of human history, and study it by the methods of scientific or historical research. His clearest result is anti-individualism. He tells us himself that he coincides a good deal with Hegel's results, while he claims, perhaps with truth, to do more justice than Hegel to the distinction between ethical facts and juristic. Man

as a natural being is part of a wider social whole; the expression of his partial but growing sense of this fact is found in morality. Every one will be anxious to go into the discussion of ethics upon this broad common territory of fact, but one doubts whether any basis of mere facts will carry the necessary ethical superstructure. In regard to the relation between ethics and metaphysics, there may be room for a tertium quid. Without treating ethics as a simple branch or corollary of the theory of the Absolute, we may hold that some metaphysical issues must be faced -if only provisionally-before we can deal profitably with the problems of ethics (or religion, or æsthetics, or possibly psychology). A final restatement of the doctrine of the Absolute may come later, gathering up all that we have learned in the special branches of philosophy. For lack of metaphysical preliminaries, Wundt seems at times precritical and uncritical. Only one example can be given. If Kant is charged with "wholly untenable views" and "a union of contradictions" (p. 54) in teaching that human conduct may be viewed cither as determined or as free, it seems hard to understand why Wundt is allowed to teach, on a parallel though not identical problem, that (p. 51) "where psychical processes may be regarded from an external as well as an internal point of view, these processes may either be assigned to the complex of psychical events by virtue of their immediate characteristics, or may be ranked within the casual nexus of mechanical processes by virtue of their external sensible aspect," and that "convenience" will decide between the two modes of treatment. "Convenience," indeed! Where opportunism begins, science ends. That is not fact, but shifting subjectivity.

More particularly, the new ethic rests upon psychology. This is stated on the title-page of Schwarz's book, and he frequently refers to his own published works on psychology. Wundt again is one of the most distinguished living psychologists; and his methods and basis are explained in the two previous volumes of translation noticed in this Review some years ago. As a sample of the help which recent advances

in psychology offer to ethics, we may mention a point dwelt upon by Schwarz—the uprooting of belief in the psychological universality and necessity of egoism, and the admission of altruistic promptings as genuine and original parts of the mind's equipment. Even Wundt offers new contributions which, perhaps, we ought to regard as an eirenicon on the vexed question of free will. There are two kinds of causation -psychical, and mechanical or material, the latter being absolutely inapplicable to mind. But, when we go further, the two writers differ widely. Wundt dismisses along with the hard soul-substance of the old "rational psychology" all belief in a solid kernel of human personality. Consequently (p. 29) personal immortality is also dismissed. For "the soul doubtless is immortal where a soul can be discerned," and not otherwise. Here the appeal to psychology seems to be allowed to carry us very far indeed towards metaphysical and ethical (or non-ethical) results. The old purely introspective psychology believed that it laid its finger on "the very pulse of the machine"; by what right does modern psychology advance such exorbitant claims? If it can perform its limited task of description without using the conception of a self, by all means let it do so. But it does not follow that what psychology-or one writer's psychology-has not required to postulate is a thing nonexistent. In Schwarz there is nothing analogous to these positions.

Again, the writers differ on Free Will. Schwarz defends the belief strongly, and makes two interesting points. First, he asserts that in ancient times no one thought of denying the psychological freedom of will, although the Stoic doctrine of cycles led to a denial of the power of the will always to embody its choice in external action. Again, he urges that, if we deny liberty of action, we ought by analogy to deny that the laws of thought can control the stream of associated ideas. Wundt, on the contrary, denies any freedom in the libertarian sense. His final argument against it is that its admission would make a science of psychology impossible. No doubt it was a mistake of former idealist philosophers to

pooh-pooh the collecting of psychological facts; and vet we are paying rather dear for our psychology if we purchase it by sacrificing the moral nature of man. But Wundt is inexorable. There must be no such thing as a suspense of causation or even of determination. Prediction, according to "Laplace's World-formula," is indeed impossible in the region of mind, not merely because of the complexity of motivethat was granted long ago by the "hardest" determinismbut also (it seems) because causation in the world of mind need not work to uniform results-there is no solid mindsubstance to steady it. Here again one is tempted to call for metaphysical scrutiny. Is a universal law which does not work uniformly any law at all? Or is it an idle figment? Or, taking lower ground, we might ask whether causal determination of the will is a finding of psychology or a prejudice introduced from other sciences. It is indeed a consequence of psychology-without-a-psyche that volitions also should melt into the psychical stream and lose their independence; but was that a proved fact? Was it not a mere working hypothesis?

It appears to the present writer that Wundt, like most determinists, ignores his position when he goes on to the detail of ethical statement. What is the use of saying (p. 57) that "the most important factor" in the development of character is "the exercise of will"? If Wundt is right, will is merely a middleman, and we must push back to find the ultimate sources of causation outside us, in the materialistic pair, Heredity and Environment. Wundt is like a critic of expenditure who should say that, while too much had gone under this and that heading, the most important factor in your outlay was the very big totals you carried forward from the bottom of one page to the top of another.

Having got his basis tant bien que mal, Wundt deals with the ordinary questions of ethics in an interesting and readable fashion, sensible rather than profound, but with good literary touch. He recognises three distinct moral ends—individual, social and humanitarian; the lower of these is always to give place to the higher. Schwarz also has a plurality of

ends, but he is satisfied with two—a personal end (self-respect) and what he calls "Foreign Values" or "Worths," the latter being subdivided, however, into "altruistic" (mainly social) and "inaltruistic" (which we must claim leave to translate "ideal"). And Schwarz concurs in holding that the higher value always takes precedence of the lower. Once again we crave metaphysical criticism. Can the sense of duty possibly end in a plurality? The unification in each treatise—in neither of them is it a unity—takes the form of a basis for systematic casuistry. But such a casuistry is hard to believe in when we consider the complexity of life; to say nothing of other arguments.

Finally, Wundt teaches that the contents of the moral ideal are liable to endless evolutionary change, without prospect that the human race can ever realise the ideal that floats before it. Only one thing, we are told, may be postulated, that we are to strive after the ideal, and that (somehow) the ethical gains of humanity must endure (p. 107), though personal immortality be dismissed as a foolish dream. This is Professor Wundt's religious creed; and it seems to constitute the promised metaphysical result of ethics. Its positive elements, so far as they go, are unobjectionable. But they suggest another criticism. Under the vague heading of "humanitarian" ends or norms, Wundt finds room for ideal morality. That is a great point gained; but is it quite fairly gained? Is our supreme reason for the toil of duty and self-sacrifice the future existence, during a few millenniums, of a community of dying men, continuing the tradition of civilisation on this doomed planet? In the last resort Wundt suggests something deeper; ought he not to have recast his phenomenal ethics from the higher point of view? But within its limits, and upon its assumptions, the work is well done; while, "aside from" some Americanisms and one or two slips, the translation also seems good. There is a fair index.

Schwarz's views have confessed affinities with Martineau's. He treats each moral judgment as a preference—persons better than conditions; others better than self. Still, he

points out that he differs in formulating the moral ends under two great heads rather than trusting the moral sense to produce a serial scale of values. From Kant again he differs in basing morality not on practical reason but, characteristically, on the distinct psychological facts of will. Within each particular end, conscience prefers one act and postpones another by means of "analytic" judgments: but the great fundamental preferences are "synthetic" or creative, i.e., their worth is revealed to us when we exercise such preference. The rigorism to which this rule -"always do the highest possible"-seems to point is evaded by the doctrine that we can only do right when a natural feeling lends its help to the law. (In its absence the duty in question, though abstractly good, is not our duty.) Schwarz also has a religion of his own. He co-ordinates and adds together the theism of Feeling (dependence), of Thought (belief in the Great First Cause), and of Will (ethical faith). Also, under appeal to the "teaching" of the "Redeemer" he pleads for a worship of God which consists in the service of man, solely. This may be better than the author's earlier statement, according to which God is one out of several "foreign values". Are we to take in an absolutely literal sense the restriction of worship to work?

In spite of a curiously declamatory if serviceably clear style, Schwarz's book has a solid kernel of thought, sometimes original. Whether it really furnishes "the Alpha and Omega of ethics" (p. viii.) is another question. There is an excellent summary printed in lieu of running title at the top of the pages, and the index is satisfactorily full.

ROBERT MACKINTOSH.

The World and the Individual.

(Gifford Lectures delivered before the University of Aberdeen. Second Series.)

By Josiah Royce, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of the History of Philosophy in Harvard University. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1901. Pp. xx. + 480. Price 12s. 6d. net.

In this volume Professor Royce completes the Gifford Lecture that he delivered at the University of Aberdeen in the Winter Sessions of 1898-99 and 1899-1900. The previous series had traversed a wide speculative field, dealing with the conception of Being, partly in the form of trenchant criticism of typical ontological theories, and partly in the formulating and enunciating of the author's own view-all pointing forward, however, to a fuller development of his system. This fuller development is now before us; and it certainly does not lack in brilliancy and suggestiveness. The comprehensive sweep, the lucid style, the felicitous diction, the apt illustrations, and the keen dialectic carry the reader along as few metaphysical writings do; while the intensity of conviction that permeates the whole produces on one an impression second only to that which was made upon the Aberdeen audience that listened to the lectures, enforced by the striking personality of the author as he delivered them.

As an idealist, Professor Royce naturally starts in his philosophy, not from the world as a given something, but from Being; and, having determined the meaning of Being, proceeds to evolve his system. To be or to be real he defines as to fulfil a purpose; and the purpose that the individual fulfils is found, in the ultimate analysis, to be that of the Absolute.

For the Absolute purpose is fulfilled in the world by a countless number of individual wills, expressed in individual lives, and each unique. So that the problem comes to be the nature of the Individual and of the Absolute, and their relation each to each. This necessitates, therefore, in the first place, a Theory of human Knowledge, which is carefully worked out in the first two lectures of the treatise. and which revolves around the contrast between the two types of knowledge-the "descriptive" and the "appreciative"-which, in turn, depends upon the contrast between the "social" and the "individual" points of view, but which also has its logical notes in the consciousness of the Individual. Next comes an outline of a Philosophy of Nature, discussing, on the one hand, the distinction between the Temporal and the Eternal World-order (Lecture III.), and showing how Time and Eternity are not disparate but of a piece; and, on the other hand, presenting (in Lectures IV. and V.) such a view and interpretation of the cosmic processes, especially Evolution, as shall mediate between Idealism and our experience of Nature, and shall show "that an idealist is not obliged either to ignore or to make light of physical facts in order to maintain his theory of the Absolute". Then follows consideration of the human Self-in its origin and nature and in its place in Being (Lectures VI. and VII.). Great stress is here laid on the social origin of the self, and views are enunciated that are by no means conventional. The self is not a substance (there is no such thing as a substantial soul); nor is it to be taken from the abstract and impersonal view of being, which gives us self as a law rather than a life, and as a type of existence rather than an individual. The self is essentially "a life with a meaning"; it is ethically free and gains its individuality through its relation to God, being "a unique expression of the Divine purpose". Consequently, it is not a datum but an ideal—it is never fully realised here; and so we cannot define it. But the Absolute also is a self and a life (as is shown specifically in Lecture VIII., "The Moral Order")-only it is a whole life, final and perfect,

But what, now, of Evil in the world? This is the question that is specially taken up in Lecture IX.; and the handling shows the author at his best. In the Temporal Order, it is urged, there is, at every point and in every act, relative freedom. Hence the possibility of the individual will consciously resisting the Will of the world. "The consequences of such resistance are real evils—evils that all finite beings and the whole world suffer. Such evils are justified only by the eternal worth of the life that endures and overcomes them. And they are temporally overcome through other finite wills and not without moral conflict." The solution must also, in great measure, be sought in the solidarity of the race. Moral agents in the universe must not be sundered -each individual helps or retards the other, and each suffers from the other's ill-doing, and yet is privileged to make atonement for it, and, therefore, to aid in overcoming or transcending it. Thus the Divine will is ever winning its way in the world, and we are the means of realising it, and so shall share in the triumphs of the eternal order. This, therefore, is our comfort, viz., "in the consciousness, first, that the ideal sorrows of our finitude are identically God's own sorrows, and have their purpose and meaning in the Divine life as such significant sorrows; and in the assurance, secondly, that God's fulfilment in the eternal world—a fulfilment in which we too, as finally and eternally fulfilled individuals, share, is to be won, not as the mystic supposed, without finitude and sorrow, but through the very bitterness of tribulation, and through overcoming the world. In being faithful to our task we too are temporally expressing the triumph whereby God overcomes in eternity the temporal world and its tribulations."

But now (Lecture X.) the individual is immortal. This he is because of his union with God. He is, also, immortal because of death; for "the death of an individual is a possible fact, in an idealistic world, only in case such death occurs as an incident in the life of a larger individual, whose existence as this Self and no other, in its individual contrast with the rest of the world, is continuous in meaning with the

individuality that death cuts short. No Self, then, can end until itself consciously declares, My work is done, here I cease." Hence, thirdly, he is immortal as an ethical self in union with God; for the task of an ethical self—that of serving—is never finished.

Such, in brief, is the teaching of this important treatise. One strong point about it is, its persistent refusal to sunder the individual from other individuals, from the rest of the world, and from God; and another is its equally persistent refusal to sever the Temporal from the Eternal Order in the universe. It is peculiar among Idealisms, also, in maintaining the Personality of the Absolute, and in fully recognising the nature and reality of Evil. It is far removed from Mysticism, and keeps in touch with common-sense.

In this way a great many objections that are usually urged against Idealistic theory are met by anticipation. Yet difficulties remain with regard both to the Individual and to the Absolute.

For instance, it is a prominent position of Professor Royce that "what the Self in its wholeness wills is just, in so far, God's will, and is identical with one of the many expressions implied by a Divine purpose". But, clearly, some one definite sense must be attached to "self in its wholeness," and some test must be supplied to determine when the Self does will in its wholeness and when not; otherwise we shall run the risk of reasoning in a circle, maintaining that self wills in its wholeness when it consciously and intentionally fulfils the divine purpose, and that it consciously and intentionally fulfils the divine purpose when it wills in its wholeness. Nor is the matter made easier by the consideration that individuality, as set forth by Dr. Royce, is still very much a name to us-is still in great measure an unknown quantity: it is never fully known by us here, because it is not yet realised by us, and so defined only in terms of an ideal.

Again, the social origin of the human self presents difficulties. That consciousness of self grows and develops through social intercourse and in a social atmosphere is unquestioned. It may freely be granted that it is through communication with other selves that the individual comes to regard himself as a self. But there are other necessary factors in the genesis of self—especially the individual's own body, with its organic sensations, and his activities brought into exercise in relation to external objects. Consideration of these and of other processes implicated in the development of self casts doubt on the position that "various Selves can possess, in the whole or in a part of their lives, identically the same experiences, so that one Self can originate, or can develop within another self".

In like manner, there is difficulty in the notion of the Absolute as an individual—"the Individual of individuals"; and there is difficulty in conceiving the kind of future existence of the finite individual, when his purpose is realised, and when the present type of consciousness gives place to another.

But, difficulties apart, the work is a very remarkable one, stimulating and suggestive at every point; and all who are interested in the higher problems of thought will welcome it as a real contribution (the greatest of recent years) to the philosophy of the subject.

WILLIAM L. DAVIDSON.

An Outline of the Relations between England and Scotland (500-1707).

By R. S. Rait, Fellow of New College, Oxford. London: Blackie & Son, 1901. 8vo, pp. xxviii, + 225. Price 7s. 6d. net.

MR. RAIT has produced an extremely useful and readable account of the relations of Scotland and England till the Union. The work is very useful for the student, for it collects a great number of facts, many of which, indeed, may be found scattered through other histories, but which are difficult to grasp because they have not hitherto been collected, and it will be useful and interesting to the general reader, for the subject with which it deals is both difficult and interesting; and Mr. Rait presents the facts in a very luminous and readable fashion; the learning behind the work is solid and careful, but there is nothing pedantic in the way it is used.

To the technical student, no doubt, the most important discussion in the book is that contained in the introductory chapter on the question whether the Scottish nationality should be looked upon as predominantly Celtic or as, properly speaking, an independent section of the English race. Mr. Rait traverses the judgment which has been commonly received that the Scottish Lowlander was, not only in language and manners, but also predominantly in blood, of the English race, and that the Highlander was, properly speaking, much further from the Lowlander than the Lowland Scotch were from the English. It would be entirely unbecoming in one like myself who has no complete acquaintance with the subject, either from the point of view of Celtic institutions or of early Scottish manners and institutions, to express a judgment upon the controversy, but I may say that Mr. Rait has stated his case with precision and force, so well, indeed, that VOL. XII.-No. 2. 10

I can only hope that he will have occasion and opportunity to deal with the matter more completely.

Mr. Rait introduces his discussion of the relations between England and Scotland by a short chapter on the relations of the two countries before the Norman Conquest, very terse and clear, and which says as much perhaps as there is to be said on the subject. In the next chapter he deals also very tersely and clearly with the relations of the countries from the Conquest till the death of Alexander III., giving an excellent summary view of the feudalisation of the Lowlands, and the settling of the Norman nobles in the country, and brings out in sharp and clear relief the first definite and tangible point in the relations of the two countries, the recognition of Henry II. as overlord of Scotland in the treaty of Falaise in 1174, when William the Lion had been made prisoner. But as Mr. Rait points out, the relations within a few years fall back into the former uncertainty, when in 1189, by the agreement between Richard I. and William the Lion, the terms of the treaty of Falaise were annulled.

But we do not propose to summarise Mr. Rait's work, and we need only say that the care and precision which marks the early chapters of the book are carried out to the end. It does not fall within the scope of the work to deal much with one aspect of Scottish institutions which Mr. Rait has already handled very effectively, I mean the history of Parliamentary institutions in Scotland, but such references as there are in the work are interesting and illuminating. Many who are interested in the scientific treatment of Scottish history will look forward especially to a more complete treatment of the history of the political institutions, and no one will be more competent to undertake this than Mr. Rait. When that work is accomplished there will, I venture to think, be a great deal more of interest to say on the comparison of English and Scottish history.

A. J. CARLYLE.

Étude sur les origines et la nature du Zohar.

Par S. Karppe. Paris : Félix Alcan, 1901. 8vo, pp. x. +599. Price F.7.50.

THE work before us may be considered as consisting of two almost equal parts. Pages 1-306 give a sketch of the history of Jewish mysticism from the earliest times to about the close of the thirteenth century; pages 307-581 contain a discussion of Zohar and of its contents. Probably the second part will not interest a non-Jewish reader much. Zohar would be a work of great importance to the student of the history of Christianity, if it were indeed, as it claims to be, a faithful transcript of the teaching of Rabbi Simon ben Jochai (fl. circ. A.D. 150), who is one of the authorities quoted in the Mishnah. If we could indeed ascribe to a Jewish doctor of the second century the hints of the doctrine of a Divine Trinity and of a Suffering Messiah which are found in Zohar, we should have to confess that the influence of Christianity on the thought of the leaders of Judaism was much greater than can at present be allowed. But Dr. Karppe, in agreement with earlier scholars, Jacob ben Zebi Emden (1763) and Jellinek (1851), shows on both external and internal evidence that the book is not earlier than circ. A.D. 1300. Indeed it may hardly be called a "book," but rather "une juxtaposition, un agrégat d'éléments hétérogènes". Dr. Karppe declines to accept the suggestion that certain parts of this aggregation are early; all claim to go back to ben Jochai, and all are spurious when judged by this claim.

The sketch of Jewish mysticism which occupies the first half of Dr. Karppe's book, is both useful and interesting. A great deal of matter is presented in very few pages. The author defines Jewish mysticism as the product of Jewish thought "evoluant sous l'action de la pensée non-juive" (p. 20). He gives a chapter on Mysticism "jusqu'à la clôture du Talmud," abounding with interesting quotations from early Midrash. "Chaque jour Dieu crée une classe d'anges qui récitent devant lui un cantique et disparaissent "(Breshith R. 78). "Les méchants s'appuient sur Dieu, mais les justes, Dieu s'appuie sur eux" (ibid., 69). "L'effet de la faute (of the sin of Adam) disparaît avec la révélation sinaitique."

It is to be hoped that the text of Dr. Karppe's book will be very carefully revised in a second edition. There are many misprints in the Hebrew, some in the French, and the Greek accents are "anyhow". Page 24, line 5, read "Maaseh," p. 45, note 3, הדרן, p. 49, note 4, הסתכל, p. 52, lines 31, 32 (accents!), p. 53, line 3 (accents!), p. 55, line 5, read νομοθέτης, p. 70, line 2, read Vajikra, p. 71, note 1, read beth for caph twice.

W. EMERY BARNES.

Leben Jesu.

Von D. Oscar Holtzmann, a. o. Professor der Theologie an der Universität Giessen. Tübingen und Leipzig: J. C.B. Mohr, 1901. Pp. xvi. + 428. Price 7s. 9d. net.

As might be expected, the attempt is being made from time to time to rewrite the life of Jesus in view of the most recent critical study of the Gospels, and this work, issued a few months ago by Professor O. Holtzmann, is beyond all question one of the most competent and readable of German delineations of the subject. A minor merit of the volume is that we are spared all controversial discussion of points in scholarship or doctrine; as in the case of Weizsäcker's Apostolic Age, the reader is presented with conclusions rather than processes. At the same time the expert will find the book quite as interesting as the general reader. The author's tone is that of the severely self-restrained historian, perfectly candid and notably dispassionate, but somewhat prosaic, and manifestly in bondage to a less ample spirit of grace and liberty than breathes through the pages of the New Testament.

Holtzmann's initial discussion of the sources has an interest of its own aside from the main purpose of his book. With the vast majority of recent critics he takes Mark to have been in the hands of the authors of our first and third Gospels; Matthew's collection of the Logia, however, is earlier still. Previous histories of Christ's ministry exhibit signs of hesitation and uncertainty, mainly because they neglect to follow Mark strictly in matters of chronology. The historical value of the Fourth Gospel is altogether secondary, for no scientific writer can consent to use, as material of first-class importance, data which throughout show signs of having been handled with the most sovereign freedom. A feature of Holtzmann's work for which the reader will scarcely be prepared, is the high authority assigned to the Gospel of the Hebrews. This comes out especially in connexion with the

question of Christ's sinlessness, His relations to His family, and the order of the three temptations. "The Gospel of the Hebrews seems to be, on the whole, similar in type to our Synoptics, but also quite independent and of equal value" (p. 39).

Mark is regarded as having, with historical insight and truth, divided the life of Jesus into five sections sharply distinguished from one another. These sections are as follows: (1) from Jesus' birth to His self-discovery as Messiah at His baptism; (2) from the beginning of His ministry to the controversy with the Pharisees about ceremonial purity; (3) from His flight thereafter to Peter's confession; (4) from Peter's confession to the entry into Jerusalem; (5) from the entry into Jerusalem onwards. The brincipium divisionis which we must employ in making this partition is Jesus' attitude to His own Messiahship. All that can be done with His sayings is to fit them into that section of the life where they seem most in place. There is a brief but interesting passage which discusses the point whether we can possibly expect to write a biography of Christ at all. The claims urged by Holtzmann in this respect are modest.

On many phases of our Lord's life and action we have found this book eminently instructive and full of suggestion. Taken as a whole, nothing could be better than what the author has to say, for instance, about Christ's use of the Old Testament, His knowledge of human life, His temptations, the masculine strength of His character, many of the more prominent parables, the Lord's Prayer, the significance of Peter's confession, the order of events during the last week of Christ's life. This last section of the work is especially good. There is much sagacious Christian Lebensweisheit scattered up and down its pages. In short, as regards all the less central and interior aspects of the subject, we are furnished with the most valuable information, delighted with sympathetic exposition, and filled with a sense of historic reality and substance.

But in many other respects, and these quite as momentous

from the standpoint of history as from the standpoint of faith, Holtzmann's judgment does not appear to us to be free to accept facts as they are. A devotee of the Aufklärung would not feel himself entirely out of his own atmosphere in these pages. The elements in the Gospels which we are accustomed to call supernatural are uniformly reduced to the limits of every-day events. Holtzmann, in fact, is working with a set of principles which forbid conclusions of any but a certain kind. For example, while the eschatological character of Christ's preaching is rightly emphasised (pp. 124, 128), the Preacher is represented far too much as literally tied to the notions of His time. No doubt Christ accepted and used the ideas current in His day, as He accepted, in becoming man, a particular language and grammar, and as any one was bound to do who desired to make himself intelligible to his contemporaries; but in His hands they came to have an ideal and religious content which was destined ultimately to burst the bonds of Jewish thought. To this consideration Holtzmann seems blind, and any one who compares the relevant passages in this book with the valuable treatise on the same subject by Professor Erich Haupt of Halle, will become keenly aware of the radical deficiencies of his treatment.

Nor can the view of the Gospel miracles offered us in this book be said to satisfy even moderate demands. The wonders wrought by the Holy Coat of Trèves are adduced as casting a much-needed light upon Christ's miracles of healing. Is there anything in the Gospel story, one may ask at this point, which suggests that Christ failed in some of the cases of disease brought to Him, and if not, is it not-even from the point of view of inductive logic—to put a fool's cap upon the discussion to introduce such a parallel? The calming of the sea is dismissed as a coincidence; the narratives of the widow's son and of Lazarus are denied all authenticity because they are not to be found in the oldest Gospel. The explanation given of such things as the feeding of the five thousand and the walking on the sea compares badly in force and verisimilitude with older rationalising theories of the same kind. The Transfiguration is an allegory. Holtzmann's

view of the Resurrection has many features of resemblance to Keim's, though there is a curious audacity in his quoting I Corinthians xv. 6, to prove that such subjective visions as he believes in could quite well appear to a multitude at once. The Apostle, we may be sure, hardly contemplated such a use of his words. The strange theory meets us here again that the Resurrection was "certainly expected" (p. 391). None of the appearances took place in Jerusalem. Joseph of Arimathea, objecting to have a criminal buried in his grave, probably bestowed the body of Jesus elsewhere as soon as the Sabbath was past. With this goes an ill-judged attempt to make Paul a witness to the theory that the body was not reanimated.

Though we have called attention to certain elements in this Leben which fail to satisfy the canons of history, we have every desire to recognise its many and conspicuous merits. For though Holtzmann is a writer rather of knowledge than of power, he holds the mind of the reader by the solid and substantial impressiveness of the narrative as it unfolds in his hands. Those who share his standpoint will, without question and not unjustly, regard his work as one of enduring value. Such representations of Christ's life set the mind a-working round the deepest problems of our religion. It is an intellectual exercise of the most engrossing kind, indeed, to inquire how much we can say about Jesus of Nazareth apart altogether from religious faith in Him. But have we any right to separate history and faith in the matter? Is not the faith itself based upon a view of the history as a whole, and if so, how can it remain without objective influence and value for our conclusions upon details of the Gospel narrative? The Jesus Christ presented to us in the New Testament would become a different person if His miracles, and, above all, His resurrection were removed. Both faith and history seem to unite in this judgment, and in that case books of the kind Professor Holtzmann has written are bound partially to fail in their appeal to the Christian consciousness.

Der Menschensohn, Jesu Selbstbezeichnung mit besonderer Berücksichtigung des aramäischen Sprachgebrauches für "Mensch" untersucht.

Von Paul Fiebig, Licentiat der Theologie. Tübingen und Leipzig: Paul Siebeck, 1901. M.3.

This is the up-to-date book on the philological controversy which Lietzmann's Menschensohn opened with such startling force in 1896. It goes on the same lines of research into dialects of Aramaic in which Lietzmann and Dalman (Worte Jesu, 1898) have led the way, but it goes further and it brings back results more edifying than Lietzmann's and more tenable than Dalman's. Part I. (pp. 8-60) treats exhaustively of the Aramaic usage in vocables for man. The particular object is to discover the words or expressions available in the dialect Jesus probably used. Lietzmann maintained (1) that barnasha' was the only word available in that dialect, although, curiously enough, he admits eleven instances in his chief authority (the Christian-Palestinian document known as Evangeliarium Hierosolymitanum) of the use of the alternative gebhara'. (2) That the proper translation of barnasha' in Greek is $\ddot{a}\nu\theta\rho\omega\pi\sigma\sigma$ or \dot{a} $\ddot{a}\nu$, in no case $\nu i\dot{a}\sigma$ or ο υίδς τοῦ ἀνθρώπου. (3) That the indeterminate form barnash can mean only some or any one = Greek Tis. (4) That there is no evidence apart from the Gospels of the use of Barnasha' in the time of Jesus in a distinctive sense (as = the Messiah), and that the ascription of the self-designation (ὁ vi. τ. ἀνθ.) in the Greek Gospels to Jesus is due partly to misunderstanding of Aramaic originals, and partly to the fondness of subapostolic Hellenists for the apocalyptic title suggested by Daniel. As to (4) Dalman agreed with the first part, misled (I venture to think) by his sense of what was due to the impressive fact that in the New Testament Jesus only applied the Danielic title to himself. But as to the theory which ascribes the alleged mistake to subapostolic Hellenists, Dalman justly remarks that the silence of the New Testament in regard to the title except as a self-designation of Jesus might have kept Lietzmann from entertaining a view so wildly improbable. According to Lietzmann himself, Hellenism is already rampant in our Greek Gospels in this prominent "Son of Man". How is it that the title appears only on the lips of Jesus and is not even once applied to him by reporters who love it so well as to ascribe it, without any foundation in fact, to the Master? Fiebig differs from Dalman mainly in two particulars: (1) He holds, and so far as possible proves, that the Danielic title was in currency in at least some Jewish circles in the time of our Lord. The proof from the usage in the Similitudes of Enoch and in Fourth Ezra is of course precarious in so far as neither of these apocalypses can be proved to be pre-Christian.1 Fiebig does not discuss the question of the dates of these books. It is enough to be able to treat them as evidence of first century usage. It is not seriously contended that either of them is later, and the supposition of the interpolation of Christian words into documents so absolutely free of distinctively Christian ideas has nothing to support it. But in regard to this matter also, the most convincing proof lies in the New Testament itself. The Gospels are full of the proof that Jesus was a mystery both to disciples, the rulers and the crowd. But no one feels a difficulty about the mere phrase "Son of Man". It may be misunderstood, but, as we shall see, the most indifferent hearers of Jesus must at least think that they understand it. Fiebig thinks it reasonable to believe that it is "Son of Man" in Psalms viii. 4 that has led to the Messianic use of the psalm which we find both in Paul and the author of the Epistle to the Hebrews (I Cor. xv. 27, Heb. ii. 6 ff.). (2) Fiebig differs from Dalman in his

¹ It is significant, however, that the pre-Christian date, not only of the Similitudes but of Fourth Exra, is maintained in Kautzsch's recently published editions in Die Apocryphen u. Pseudepigraphen des A. T. Freiburg i. B., 1899.

view of the meaning of barnasha'. He agrees with Lietzmann and Wellhausen in thinking that even in the time of our Lord it was the exact and not as in Hebrew the mere poetic equivalent of 'enasha' (Heb. Haadham). He holds that even in the biblical Aramaic of Daniel 'enash and bar'enash are precisely on the same footing, as is proved by a comparison of vv. 4 and 13 in Dan. vii. There is no less reason to be poetical at v. 4 than at v. 13, yet in the former case 'cnash and in the latter bar'enash is used. Why then do the Greek evangelists render the self-designation of Jesus ο νίος τοῦ ἀνθρώπου, and not simply ὁ ἄνθρωπος? Because—the title is fundamentally a quotation. Bar is translated, not because it has any force, but because it occurs in the model passage in Daniel, i.e., vii. 13. If the patronymic prefix has lost force in the time of Daniel, how much more in the time of our Lord? This may be so, but even a layman on the linguistic question may hazard the opinion that Dalman will feel the evidence to be somewhat slender. Not even the magnificent research of a scholar, who, like Fiebig, has searched through not only the Jerusalem Talmud, but the Babylonian (which is four times larger), can produce—apart from the biblical books of Daniel and Ezra-instances of the Aramaic usages earlier than the second century A.D. The usage of the second century A.D. is good evidence for the likely usage of the first century A.D., but it is weak evidence for the usage of the second century B.C. Can Fiebig give us an instance in biblical Aramaic where the patronymic prefix is used in a purely prosaic passage and with no heightening of the sense or dignity of the expression? To point to a poetic-apocalyptic passage (Dan. ii. 4) where the patronymic is not used proves no more in regard to the usage of biblical Aramaic than, say, the similar absence of the patronymic in Micah vi. 8 proves in regard to the usage of biblical Hebrew. While, therefore, we may believe, on the basis of the evidence marshalled with such immense learning and skill by Fiebig, that Jesus spoke an Aramaic in which, in ordinary usage, the patronymic prefix has lost its significance, we may still feel that the fact of the self-designation of Jesus being of the nature of a quotation from a canonical apocalypse carries with it the necessity to preserve the phrase in all the fulness of heightened sense and dignity which it has not in Daniel only but throughout the Old Testament. Is it not this feeling in the Greek evangelists which accounts for the invariable o vios του $\dot{a}\nu\theta\rho\dot{\omega}\pi\sigma\nu$ (and not merely \dot{o} $\ddot{a}\nu\theta\rho\omega\pi\sigma\rho$) wherever they understood Jesus to be speaking of himself?

In view of the confidence with which Lietzmann had declared it to be incredible on linguistic grounds alone that Jesus could have called himself Barnasha' in the distinctive sense implied in our Gospels, the linguistic results of Fiebig are startling indeed. But they have the advantage of being proved in black and white, and on the basis of a review of existing Aramaic documents that is exhaustive to a degree hitherto unparalleled.

Besides the enormous labour of searching through the two Talmuds, Fiebig has culled examples from about a dozen other documents, which need not here be even named. We are concerned with the result. It may be stated as follows :--

- (1) There are in the various dialects of Aramaic not one word only but (irrespective of differences in literation) four that may be used to express the determinate singular = the man, viz., 'enash, 'enasha', barnash', barnasha'.
- (2) All the four may mean (according to the connection) one or other of the four: a man, the man, man (collectively), some or any one.

Time has thus, so to speak, blunted the point of the Aramaic vocables for man at both ends. It has tended to make meaningless both the patronymic prefix and the determinate affix.

In Part II. (pp. 61-127) Fiebig deals with "Son of Man" in the New Testament, and his application of the result of Part I. is both deeply interesting in itself and deeply satisfactory to those who wish to maintain (in this connection) the most literal view possible of the historicity of the Gospels. Where so much was, ex hypothesi, left to the discretion of the hearers and interpreters of Jesus' words the possibility of occasional mistake on the part of the Greek evangelists looks on the first blush very like a probability. Fiebig hastens to show that in not one of the five cases,1 in regard to which mistakes have been most confidently asserted, is the probability a fact. The most interesting, perhaps, are Mark ii. 10, 27 f. In the former, the rendering "that a man on earth has power," etc., seems borne out by Matt. ix. 8, where the multitude glorify God who has given "such power to men". But the point of our Lord's argument is not that a man has. or that men in general have power to forgive sins, but that one who can heal a paralytic with a word can also forgive sins. The translator is therefore right in treating Barnasha' as a self-designation of Jesus. On the other hand, barnasha' might mean simply men in general. Hence there is room for the popular misunderstanding noted in Matt. ix. 8. In Mark ii. 27 f., the view of Lietzmann and Wellhausen, that Jesus meant to say "man is lord of the Sabbath," has a certain reasonableness. The proposition seems the legitimate conclusion from the premiss: "The Sabbath was made for man".

Fiebig thinks it incredible, nevertheless, that Jesus should have said anything so loose. His view is that the two sayings have been brought mechanically together by Mark. "The Sabbath was made for man" suits the incident of the disciples plucking the ears of corn. "The Son of Man is lord even of the Sabbath" must belong rather to some occasion in which Jesus was Himself the offender. Luke, e.g., attaches the saying to the incident of the cornfield with the loose link, καὶ ἔλεγεν αὐτοῖς (Luke vi. 5).

Fiebig's verdict is that in all the passages (he goes over them all) in which "Son of Man" appears in the Gospels, the evangelist is not wrong in supposing that Jesus meant to speak of Himself. It does not follow, however, that in every instance Jesus said "Son of Man". The fact that several times the simple "I" in one Gospel takes the place of "Son of Man" in another makes it possible that in many and highly

¹ Matt. xii. 32; viii. 20; xi. 19; Mark ii. 27 f.; ii. 10; and parallels.

probable that in some cases where a Gospel says "Son of Man" Jesus may have said simply "I".1

Fiebig does not dwell on so obvious a point, but a main source of interest in his reading of the facts is that it makes for the possibility, and, in most cases, for the right of retaining "Son of Man" wherever it is found. Thus though, ex hypothesi, Barnasha' is a current Messianic title, it does not follow that every time Jesus used the expression either the multitude or the disciples understood Him to refer to the Messiah. Conversely, there may be instances in which Barnasha' is clearly understood to be the Messiah, but a doubt (whole or half) remains whether the speaker means Himself. An important instance of the latter class might be the passages—recurrent after the solemn catechising at Cæsarea Philippi-in which Jesus speaks of the sufferings of the "Son of Man". If He had said simply "I must suffer in this way," the recurring remark of the evangelists that the disciples did not understand would be an impertinence. The incomprehensible thing was that the Man of Dan. vii. 13, the Man of the Clouds of Heaven should suffer and die. Of the passages in which Jesus Himself but not the Messiah was probably evident, the most important are those in which in any Gospel "Son of Man" occurs before the account of the scene at Cæsarea Philippi. It has seemed plausible to argue that if Barnasha' was a current designation of the Messiah, Jesus could not have said Barnasha', meaning Himself, previous to the scene at Cæsarea Philippi. But on Fiebig's view of the linguistic facts, the conclusion is quite invalid. E.g., in the dialogue with the Scribe (Matt. viii. 19 f.) it was quite plain to the Scribe that when Jesus said "Barnasha' hath not where to lay His head," He could mean only Himself and not men in general. The plain and so far correct meaning was: Beasts have their houses, but in Me you see a man (barnasha') without a home. What was by no means necessarily clear to the Scribe was that the wandering Teacher was claiming to be the Messiah.

¹ The most interesting instance is notoriously Matt. xvi. 13 (omitting the gloss $\mu\epsilon$) as compared with Mark viii. 27.

Enough has perhaps been said (though the book deserves much more) to show that Fiebig's work is of great interest and a real contribution on the basis of sound knowledge to an important discussion in which very few even in Germany are qualified to take a leading part. The more constructive part of the book dealing with Jesus' reasons for choosing the Danielic title and the meaning He put into it—whether in addition to or subtraction from the model of the canonical Apocalypse—is very suggestive.

But we could take much more. Let us hope that Fiebig will soon have recovered sufficiently from his labours in the Babylonian Talmud to give us a sequel on the "Son of Man," not in *Daniel* but in Jesus, where the results of these

labours are simply assumed.

LEWIS A. MUIRHEAD.

Geschichte des Protestantismus in Oesterreich. In Umrissen. Im Auftrage der "Gesellschaft für die Geschichte des Protestantismus in Oesterreich".

Von Georg Loesche. Tübingen und Leipzig: J. C. B. Mohr, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. 251. Price M.2.

DR. LOESCHE, Professor of Theology, particularly of Church History in the Protestant Faculty associated with, though, because Protestant, not organically a part of, the Roman Catholic University of Vienna, is a recognised authority on the subject to which this little book is devoted. He has made it peculiarly his own. Various articles, and especially a work on Johannes Mathesius, an eminent cleric and schoolmaster of the period of the Reformation, which is as full of life as it is of learning, have led to a sort of silent assumption that he is, as it were, called to be the historian of Protestantism in Austria. If a Carlylean eye for characteristic points, and the gift of picturesque phrase, a never-failing, though possibly here and there a too marked antipathy to the dry-as-dust method, and an infinite capacity for ransacking original sources and gathering up details, conjoined with scrupulous exactness in references to authorities, whether original or second-hand, are qualifications of the historian, there can be no doubt about Dr. Loesche's vocation. I may say, by the way, that a history of Protestantism in Great Britain by a German of his careful scholarship, broad sympathies, lively style and religious insight is a decided desideratum. A work of the kind such a writer might produce would contribute greatly to the dissipation of a number of prejudices, halftruths and whole mistakes that are at the bottom of not a little of the alienation between Germany and ourselves which many of us sincerely deplore.

The task of carving a cameo of the course run by Pro-

testantism in Austria is one of special difficulty owing to the number of nationalities which make up the Empire, and the great diversities by which their life and character have been marked.

The tragic element in the history of Austrian Protestantism is thrust on the reader's notice in the table of contents by the heading of the two main divisions of Dr. Loesche's little book.

I. "Reformation and Counter Reformation." II. "From the Patent (or Act) of Toleration" (issued by the Emperor Joseph II., in October 1783) "to the present day, that is, from the epoch of toleration to that of equal rights."

The story of the so-called "Counter Reformation," that is, of the re-establishment of the absolute supremacy of Romanism, for cruelties and horrors of every kind, is scarcely equalled by any other. One may doubt whether the Turks behaved with greater savagery in Armenia than the Roman Catholic bishops and priests, with their obedient tools the political and other powers, behaved towards their own fellow-subjects—with of course exceptions—through a good part of two centuries. That Protestantism is not marked at the present day by much strength, enterprise or courage is not to be wondered at—the wonder is that it exists at all.

After an introduction dealing in general with the relation of Austria's rulers to Protestantism, the history is sketched according to the leading political divisions of the Empire—Lower Austria, Upper Austria, Central Austria (that is, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Graz, Istria and Trieste), Salzburg, Tyrol, Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Galicia, Bukowina. One has only to have a slight acquaintance with the enormous differences between the provinces or nations just enumerated in order to recognise that Dr. Loesche has undertaken a task requiring not only most varied learning, but the skill of a master historical artist. I can testify that what he has done is very interesting to read; whether he has succeeded in adequately working up characteristic features into an artistic whole that leaves the general impression of truth, only another master of the subject can judge.

D. W. SIMON.

Culture and Restraint.

By Hugh Black. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xi. + 383. Price 6s.

MR. BLACK has written an interesting, and useful, and, in many ways, a fine book, but one's first impression is that it is of quite unnecessary length. He could have said what is here said in half the space; and the argument, or rather the statement, would have been much more effective. Here and there it is so interesting that one feels what a condensing process could have done for it. It is not altogether easy to come to a proper estimate of the book. It is not sermon work, though the opening chapter suggests to one that the idea of the book may have grown out of a sermon on a felicitous text, Zechariah ix. 13: "Thy sons, O Sion, against thy sons, O Greece". And the preacher declares himself all through, especially in such fine chapters-probably the most effective of all-as "The Failure of the Ascetic Ideal" and "The Teaching of Jesus on Asceticism". It is really an "Essay," and the style and plan of the essayist suggest comparisons which are inevitable and exacting. It possesses beauty, and fine literary allusiveness, but it lacks grip. This lack is possibly due in some measure to the obvious and incontestable position adopted by the writer —the onlylone possible, and which is admirably stated in the last chapter on "The Christian Solution". It is impossible to decide between Culture and Restraint till the facts on which each of them rests have been recognised. "This is the Christian position, the simple acceptance of both sides, looking with clear eyes on the whole situation." The chapters which state the claims of Culture, as it is represented by its modern apostles, are good, though laboured, and exhibit the writer as he moves with singular freedom, and enviable intimacy among the Seeleys and Arnolds and

Paters of the day. The best of these is that on "Culture as Religion," in which, with a fine sense of justice, he shows "that to take culture out of its legitimate place and elevate it to a religion, is to produce only a sham religion: yet those who have made the attempt have been moved by a sense of the necessity of religion". Of course in this chapter it is Professor Seeley's Natural Religion which is chiefly laid under criticism: and the treatment of Seeley's conception of religion as, in its root idea, admiration-so that a Culture rising into a Religion demands a devotion of science, humanity, and nature—is very thorough. It is condemned for many reasons, but mainly because it ignores the question of sin. "There is no mention of sin." A religion of science and art raised to the religious pitch, even if it were possible, would fail to do justice to the moral meaning of human life. "It is not and cannot be a universal ideal; it does not give an adequate moral motive; it does not satisfy the facts of our nature, nor make provision for either sin or sorrow." In other words, it is an attempt to have "a religion without God". This may be taken as the strongest chapter in the book, both critically and constructively. The chapter on St. Paul's magnificent ideal of "The Perfect Man" also contains some strong ethical thinking, and enables Mr. Black to show very clearly that, "if we carry culture as a theory of life far enough up, and if in accordance with the facts of human nature we accept the duty implied in the possession of spiritual capacity, we are led to the religious position". Loyalty to the facts of moral life forces one to admit the regal claims of religion. This point is well stated, if, like most points in the book, it is also over-elaborated. It is religion which gives culture its true sanction. Mr. Black has some fine things here as to the place of the religious faculty, the recognition of which, as he says, puts "criticism in its right place at once: it must stand at the Temple gate or the outer court, it has no entry to the Holy of Holies".

The chapters in which there is discussed "the rival method which opposes self-culture by self-restraint" are good, especially that on "The Failure of the Ascetic Ideal," which

is illustrated largely from Augustine, and in which its failure is shown to consist "in raising into an end what can only be justified as a means—in leaving out happiness as an essential element in the moral ideal, and in making abstinence a higher virtue than temperance". The chapter on "The Physical Treatment of the Soul" is marked by much sobriety of judgment, and is, in a marked sense, modern. The chapters on "Mediæval Sainthood" and "The Origin of Asceticism" inevitably challenge competition with much that has been written on the subject, notably Harnack's recent monograph on Augustine and Monasticism; and one feels that they were not quite necessary to the idea of the book, particularly that on Mediæval Sainthood. But let Mr. Black give us more work which shows the fine ethical insight of the chapter on "The Teaching of Jesus on Asceticism". Throughout the volume there is a marked sense of fairness in the treatment of those who represent the various ideals dealt witha calm and sober judgment inspired by a judicial historic sense-and the style, though it admittedly tends to slight weariness, is clear and pure. Occasionally an affectation jars on one-as when a word like "logicated" is coined unnecessarily, and made to do duty for "reasoned". But there is no pedantry or ostentation of reading, though one is perhaps most of all impressed by the assimilative faculty which Mr. Black has, so that modern literature of all kinds, and the kinds are strikingly various, percolates into his pages in numerous quotations. In a word, Culture and Restraint is a thoughtful contribution of a popular and readable nature to the literature of Christian Ethics.

DAVID PURVES.

Romans: Introduction, Authorised Version, Revised Version, with Notes, Index and Map.

Edited by Alfred E. Garvie, M.A. (Oxon.), B.D. (Glasgow).

Edinburgh: T. C. and E. C. Jack. Pp. 322. Price 2s.
net cloth; 3s. net leather.

2. The General Epistles: James, Peter, John and Jude.

Edited by W. H. Bennett, M.A. (London and Cambridge), Professor, New College and Hackney College, London; sometime Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. Edinburgh: T. C. and E. C. Jack. Pp. 350. Price 2s. net cloth; 3s. net leather.

3. The Pastoral Epistles: Timothy and Titus.

Edited by R. F. Horton, M.A., D.D. Pp. 196. Edinburgh: T. C. and E. C. Jack, 1901. Price 2s. net cloth; 3s. net leather.

I. These are further instalments of the Century Bible which is under the competent editorship of Professor Adeney. The volumes deserve all praise for the beauty of their form, the handiness of their size, and the clear and tasteful print that delights the eye. In contents, too, they answer the requirements which the series has in view. The expositor's work is done, as a general rule, with care and thoroughness. Few things are overlooked which demand attention. The explanations are given without any parade of learning, in terms which any one can understand. Mr. Garvie's treatment of Romans is distinguished by the attention given to the great doctrinal terms. Occasionally he may come somewhat short of doing complete justice to Paul's ideas, as in the case of the Divine "election". But in general, the exposition of the great doctrinal terms follows faithfully and discerningly the lines of their history. They are carefully traced back to their roots in the Old Testament and the Jewish literature, and exhibited in the modifications and enrichments which they received in the new world of thought opened up by the Gospel. Excellent examples of this will be found in the case

of such terms as "reconciliation," "faith," "sin," etc. Still better, if possible, are the discussions of the terms "justify," "ransom," "propitiation". That the "justify" of the New Testament does not mean to "make righteous" in the sense of a moral change is very clearly shown. Mr. Garvie is equally satisfactory in what he says of the ideas of "redemption," "ransom." etc. Of the last he says with justice that it is "simply impossible to get rid of the conception of a ransom from the New Testament. Christian piety should surely be as willing to consider gratefully 'all our redemption cost' as to recognise confidently 'all our redemption won'."

2. Professor Bennett's expositions have the same good qualities of careful exegesis of the text, clause by clause and word by word, and scientific study of the ideas. It is impossible, of course, within the limits of a commentary of this bulk to deal with every question that arises. There are things which we should gladly have seen handled. In the case of the profound and far-reaching ideas of I John a fuller treatment would have been desirable. But it is remarkable how little we miss, and how continuous is the help that is provided for the reader. The introductions to the books are of much value, and there are some interesting points in them. The Epistle of James is judged to be such a letter as "the brother of the Lord" might have been expected to write, and to have no conclusive evidence negativing that authorship. Those are held, too, on the whole, to be right who refer it to a very early date. The evidence is judged to be on the whole against the traditional authorship of 2 Peter. And as to I Peter, its literary relations to the rest of the New Testament are very carefully examined, and taken to be quite consistent with the view that it was written in "the late Pauline or immediate post-Pauline period". The conclusion reached is that there is no decisive objection to the traditional account that it was composed by the Apostle in Rome about A.D. 60-65. The exegesis of the Epistle is very well done. See, e.g., what is said of the "foreknowledge of God" in i. 2 (as referring not to the characters of men but to God's own plan and working), of Christ bearing our sins (ii. 24), of the preaching to the spirits in prison (iii. 19, 20), etc.

3. Dr. Horton's contribution also is one of great value, and possesses a character of its own. It contains many acute and suggestive remarks, and always reads pleasantly. Where we feel something lacking at times is in its treatment of the doctrinal terms. The word "redeem" or "ransom" is a case in point. Dr. Horton accepts too easily the statement that the idea of a ransom paid by Christ to the devil prevailed from Irenæus to Anselm. That is a statement often repeated, but one which ought to be taken with large abatement. goes on to say that the obedience of Christ unto death is "not a commercial or even a legal transaction," but one that "belongs rather to the circle of ideas covered by 'the grace of Christ'". But this is to offer an explanation which is no explanation. Every one admits that it is not a "commercial transaction". Every one will say with Dr. Horton that it belongs to the circle of ideas covered by the grace of Christ. But a legal transaction is something essentially different from a commercial, and Christ's work may be only more within "the circle of the ideas covered by the grace of Christ" if it has a relation to law and an objective side Godward as well as a subjective side manward. Mr. Garvie's handling of these great terms is better. We find, however, many examples of penetrating interpretation in Dr. Horton's volume. We may refer to his comments on the "mystery of godliness" (I Tim. iii. 16), the "layer of regeneration" (Titus iii. 5), the bringing of "life and immortality to light" (2 Tim. i. 11-12), the case of Onesiphorus (2 Tim. i. 10) in relation to the question of prayers for the dead. The Introduction, too, is a very able piece of work. The discussion of the authorship of the Pastorals is judicious and well-balanced. Dr. Horton feels the attractions of the hypothesis ably advocated by such scholars as Harnack and M'Giffert, that in these Epistles we have authentic letters of the Apostle worked over and enlarged by a later hand. But he deems it too ingenious. He attaches more value to the painstaking investigations of Zahn, and comes to the conclusion that, on the whole, the balance of evidence is on the side of the traditional view.

William Garden Blaikie: An Autobiography. "Recollections of a Busy Life." Edited with an Introduction by NORMAN L. WALKER, D.D. Second Edition. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xvi. + 343.

This volume has grown out of notes of his life which Dr. Blaikie had prepared, and which by and by assumed the form and the dimensions of an autobiography. His friends have been well advised in giving these interesting chapters to the public. The editor has done his part well, providing an introductory sketch and estimate of the man, and the "Recollections" themselves are full of interest. Dr. Blaikie's life was indeed a busy one, and his sympathies were wide and varied. His work as a preacher, a Professor of Theology, and a Christian philanthropist won him deserved distinction. His contributions to literature were many; and his associations with men and women of eminence in different walks of life were such as a Scotch minister rarely enjoys. In these chapters he tells in his own way the story of his education in Aberdeen, his early ministry first in a quiet rural parish and then in Edinburgh, the public movements which he studied or took part in, his early literary and social ventures, his labours and fortunes as an editor, his Professorship in the New College, Edinburgh, his frequent visits to the Continent and to America. On all these subjects he has something to say that is worth saying. He has some good stories to tell, and he has experiences to chronicle which are of value.

From the first he took a keen interest in the condition of the industrial classes. He wrote nothing better indeed than his early series of papers on *Better Days for Working People*. He had the gift of organisation and did memorable service in connection with the organisation and management of the Pan-Presbyterian Alliance. He did much excellent work as the editor of several journals, especially the Sunday Magazine and the North British Review. Among his numerous writings the one that will take highest rank probably is his Personal Life of David Livingstone. But others of them have made their mark and continue to enjoy a wide circulation. One cannot read this volume without feeling that he is brought into contact with a man of sterling work, varied gifts, and exemplary life. Even those who knew him intimately will rise from the perusal of these sketches with a heightened sense of what he was.

Handbook to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament. By FREDERICK G. KENYON, Assistant Keeper of Manuscripts, British Museum. With Sixteen Facsimiles. London: Macmillan & Co., 1901. 8vo, pp. x. + 321. Price tos. net.

From Mr. Kenyon it is natural to expect the best style of work in his own special department. We get that in this handbook, which is not less handsome in form than rich and reliable in its matter. It makes an important and seasonable addition to the number of books to which the English student of the textual criticism of the New Testament can turn with confidence. It strikes the happy mean between the meagre and the exhaustive in the treatment of its subject. Without attempting to embrace all that Dr. Gregory includes in the programme which he has been working out with patient labour for years, it gives all that the student requires, and does that in an admirably clear and telling way. All that is of real value in the description, valuation and history of the manuscripts and versions is placed at our disposal. The function of the science is carefully explained. The questions relating to the use of Patristic quotations as a branch of evidence are dealt with concisely and effectively. An excellent history of the science is given, bringing the exposition of principles down to Westcott and Hort's epoch-making contribution, and to the more recent developments of inquiry. A special chapter is devoted to the "Textual Problem," in

which, among other things, the question of the Western type of text receives careful and judicious consideration. Mr. Kenyon has his own views on many points, and they are always worth attention. He gives his adhesion on the whole to Westcott and Hort, but in an independent way and with reserves as to certain possibilities. His book will be greatly valued by all interested in this fundamental department of New Testament study.

A Historic View of the New Testament. (The Jowett Lectures delivered at the Passmore Edwards Settlement in London in 1901.) By PERCY GARDNER, Litt.D. London: Adam & Charles Black, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xii. + 274. Price 6s.

To a large extent this book is a popular statement of the positions argued out in the writer's earlier work, Exploratio Evangelica. It is animated by a devout spirit which almost disarms the critic. It is written not for destructive ends, but with a sincere desire to accomplish an effective reconstruction of Christianity on the basis of a new reading of the forms in which it appears in the New Testament. It is an honest attempt to give such an interpretation of Christian history and Christian faith as may commend itself to "educated men," who are supposed to be growing more and more incredulous and estranged. And in the course of its general argument it says things now and again that are both true and suggestive. But allowing all this, we are still unable to regard it as successful either in its conclusions or in its methods. It aims at giving a purely "historic" view and at employing only the historic method of investigation. But it carries out that method very imperfectly. It is dominated throughout by a view of the world that at once rules out much that is contained in the primary sources of Christianity. It has an easy way of reaching its conclusions. In many cases it gives no indication of any ground for them except what is found in the writer's own preconception of what is historically credible. It accepts certain words as consistent with what Jesus might be expected to utter and rejects others as inconsistent and

impossible, for the simple reason that it seems so to the author as he cuts and carves on the historic documents to which we owe our knowledge of Christianity according to the subjective standard of his spiritual feeling or his own judgment of what is congruous. It discounts the whole series of the miraculous deeds and experiences of Christ with the exception of the healing miracles, which are co-ordinated with the modern phenomena of faith-healing. This elimination of the element of miracle is effected without regard to the object of the works, their connection with the words, or their relation to the Worker Himself. What is left us is a Christianity which has lost its living centre and author, and is reduced to a religion of ideas and in the main to one consisting of a lofty ethic. But this is not the faith that regenerated the world, neither is it the Christianity which is yielded by any investigation of its sources, the New Testament records, that deserves to be called scientific.

The Early Church, Its History and Literature. By JAMES ORR, M.A., D.D. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1901. Pp. 243. Price 1s. net.

This volume, which belongs to the series of "Christian Study Manuals," gives an excellent outline of the history of the Church on to the victory of Christianity under Constantine. The opening chapter describes the Jewish and Gentile preparation, concluding with a concise statement of the relation of Christianity to the Roman Law. The Apostolic Age, the period from Nero to Domitian, the Age of the Apostolic Fathers, that of the Apologists, that of the Old Catholic Fathers, and that of the Great Persecutions are then dealt with in succession. All is given in distinct and telling summary, and with the excellent feature of leaving points for further inquiry for the reader to follow up. Adequate attention is given to the literature of the Church, its organisation, the growth of offices, the rise and meaning of the early heresies, etc. The book is one that admirably answers the purpose of the series, and puts the results of extensive study in an attractive form at the service of the reader.

The Book of the Dead, an English Translation of the Chapters, Hymns, etc., of the Theban Recension, with Introduction, Notes, etc. By E. A. Wallis Budge, M.A., Litt.D., D.Lit., Keeper of the Egyptian and Assyrian Antiquities in the British Museum. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., 1901. 3 vols. Cr. 8vo, pp. xcvi. + 222; viii. + 225-526; iii. + 529-702. Price 3s. 6d. each net.

These make the sixth, seventh and eighth volumes of the series of "Books on Chaldæa and Egypt" edited by Messrs. Budge and King of the British Museum. They contain the translation given in the larger edition which appeared under the title of Chapter of Coming Forth by Day in 1897. That edition was the most complete that had been published, and in every respect an important undertaking. It is a great boon which the publishers have conferred upon us in issuing it now in this handy, tasteful, and extremely cheap form. The volumes are splendidly illustrated by a series of four hundred and twenty vignettes. The translation has been carefully revised, explanatory notes have been added, and other things done which make this edition more than a reprint of the other. Dr. Budge, while he admits of course the existence of corruptions in the text which in some passages amount to hopeless confusion, protests against the tendency on the part of certain writers on Egyptology to decry the Book of the Dead, and reminds us that the more it is studied the likelier is it that its difficulties and its dark passages will be explained. It is not easy indeed to exaggerate the interest of this strange religious book of ancient Egypt. Its chapters, as Dr. Budge says, "are a mirror in which are reflected most of the beliefs of the various races that went to build up the Egyptian of history, and to this fact is due the difficulty of framing a connected and logical account of what the Egyptians believed at any given period of their history". He has laboured hard at the task of making the religious literature and ideas of the Egyptians intelligible to us and accessible, and all students of the religions of the world owe him much. In these volumes we see something, too, of his own views on important questions in Egyptology. He recognises the existence of an aboriginal North African race and the immigration of an Asiatic race of a higher order. He is of opinion that the latter race never succeeded in entirely remoulding and elevating the former. And in this ancient book, a book so ancient that even before the Theban Recension parts of it had become utterly obscure, he sees the ideas of the semi-barbarous African element contending for recognition with the superior and highly moral and spiritual beliefs which it owed to the presence of the Asiatic element in Egypt.

The Old Testament and the New Scholarship. By JOHN P. PETERS, Ph.D., Sc.D., D.D., Rector of Saint Michael's Church, New York. London: Methuen & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. x. + 328. Price 6s.

This is another contribution to the Churchman's Library. It is one that answers well the purpose of the series of which it forms part. It is meant specially for "Churchmen," in other words for members of the Episcopal Church of England and its allies. But it will be of use to others besides these, and to the educated laity in particular. It attempts a good deal too much in truth for its limits. It falls into four main divisions. In the first part it deals with such fundamental questions as these-how the Bible has been and should be treated, what is to be understood by its inspiration, what is the teaching of the Church on the subject of Scripture, and what is the application of the doctrine of the Incarnation to the study of the written Word. This is an immense programme, and Dr. Peters gets through it in less than fifty-five pages! His capacity may well be the envy of his brethren. In the second part he takes up the question of Evolution and the Bible, giving a good statement of the development of opinion resulting in the higher criticism of the present day, and an estimate of the effect produced upon the general view of the history of the religion of Israel. The third part is devoted wholly to the Book of Psalms. Here we get a very fair account of the growth of the Psalter. In the fourth part

Dr. Peters gives a review of the results of archæology in relation to the Bible. Here he gives a special chapter to the book of Daniel, showing how archæological discoveries have confirmed the literary and historical evidence pointing to the late date.

There is a good deal in the volume that might well have been omitted. The chapter given to the story of the Prayer Book Psalter has little relevancy to the rest of the matter. The same must be said of the appendix on "The Virgin Birth". There is a great want of proportion in the selection and distribution of the matter. But the book will be useful to a large class, and it will be reassuring as well as instructive. One of the best-considered discussions in it is the one on our Lord's use of the Old Testament. On that subject Dr. Peters speaks with great discernment, in view of a careful examination of all the passages referring to it in the Gospels.

The Letters of St. Paul to Seven Churches and Three Friends.

Translated by Arthur S. Way, M.A. London: Macmillan & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xviii. + 223. Price 5s. net.

Mr. Way has experience of the art of translating. We owe to him renderings into English verse of the Iliad and the Odyssev, the Tragedies of Euripides, the Epodes of Horace and the Argonautica of Apollonius Rhodius. He is far from satisfied either with the Authorised Version of the New Testament or with the Revised. The former is guilty of many offences, of leaving passages to be understood in a sense "totally different from that of the writer," of an "Oriental vagueness" in the sense it sometimes conveys in consequence of its limited handling of the prepositions, of inadequacy in giving the exact meaning of the original, etc. The Revised Version, as it is only a revision, is open to almost all the same objections. Mr. Way wishes to give us something better. What he attempts is neither literal translation nor indefinite paraphrase, but a version which will not "obscure the meaning of the original by the condensed literality of a word-for-word rendering," but make the "connection of thoughts, the sequence of subjects, the continuity of the original" clear by supplying the "necessary links".

This induces Mr. Way, among other things, to develop the meaning of metaphor, in the way in which he conceives the reader would at once "instinctively fill up the picture". It leads him also to print many sections in the form of hymns. Of these special features of this translation we have some remarkable examples. Among the paragraphs thrown into rhythmic form, to take but a few instances, we find I Thess. iv. 16-18 ("the hymn of the Second Coming"), v. 2, 3 ("the hymn of the Day of the Lord"), v. 5-10 ("the hymn of the Night-watchers"), I Cor. viii. 4-6 ("Confession Hymn"), xi. 23-26 ("hymn of the Lord's Supper"), etc. Of the expansion of figures we have illustrations in I Cor. xiii. 8, "love's flower-petals never fail"; 2 Cor. v. 4, "it is not that we would fain be disarrayed of the mortal body, nay, but rather overdraped with the immortal, that mortality may be drowned in the sea of life". There are many renderings of a better order than these, but there is much that is overdriven. There is a vivacity in the book, however. which compensates for some things that grate on the ear, and the modern reader is often brought in an unwonted way into the heart of Paul's thoughts and reasonings.

Travel in the First Three Centuries after Christ, with Special Reference to Asia Minor. By Caroline A. J. Skeel, former student of Girton College, Cambridge, Lecturer in History, Westfield College, Hampstead. Cambridge: University Press, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 159. Price 5s.

This book begins with a statement of the rapidity with which Christianity was diffused in the first century, showing how intercommunication was maintained, and how facilities for travel such as never existed before were provided in the first centuries of the Roman empire. Very good sketches are then given of the different classes of travellers, the great recognised lines of communication North, South, East and

West, the road system of Rome, the lines of maritime transit, the risks of storm and piracy and the like, the main facts relating to river and lake travelling, etc. A special chapter is devoted to the story of communication in Asia Minor, in connection with which St. Paul's journeys are dealt with. Here we have a brief balancing of the pros and cons in the vexed question of the "Galatians" of the New Testament, the writer concluding for the South Galatian theory as the more probable view. The book is full of matter and is lucidly written. It is based on a study not only of Mommsen, Friedlander and other well-known authorities, but of the original sources. It is an intelligent and useful study.

Protestant Principles. By the Rev. J. Monro Gibson, M.A., D.D. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1901. Small cr. 8vo, pp. vii. + 171.

Dr. Gibson's book belongs to the series of Christian Study manuals. Its object is to "exhibit in a systematic form the chief principles held by Evangelical Protestants". It deals consequently with the controversy with the Roman Catholic Church and Theology, but it does so in an excellent spirit of fairness, moderation and charitableness. It begins (and this is one of its good features) with a frank recognition of what the Roman Catholic Church has in common with the Protestant. It proceeds then to deal in succession with the points of difference relating to the Word, the Work of Christ, and the Church of Christ. Its argument is directed also against all who hold by the sacerdotal view of the clerical office, and in particular against the Anglo-Catholics. There is at the same time a cordial appreciation of the work of Anglicans like Professor Moberly and Bishop Gore, and of the value of such books as the Ministerial Priesthood of the former and The Body of Christ of the latter. Perhaps the best section of the volume is that on the Ministry. But the whole argument is fairly and ably conducted, and deserves to be considered by those who hold the opposite position.

The Greek Catholic Church. By RICHARD BRINSLEY CASSA-VETTI SHERIDAN. London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. Pp. 70. Price 1s.

This small volume is made up of a paper read before the Exeter College Church Society in May last. It is an interesting, concise and sharp statement of the position of the Eastern Church. The writer leaves no doubt as to what that position is. With the utmost plainness and decision he sets forth the immemorial and persistent claim of the Greek Church to be the one Church, the whole Church, the true Church, the infallible teacher of mankind. He states the distinctive points in her doctrine, notices the few attempts at union, and in uncompromising terms explodes the idea of the possibility of any recognition on her part of the Anglican position any more than of the Papal.

Henry Drummond. By James Y. Simpson. Edinburgh and London: Oliphant, Anderson & Ferrier. Pp. 164. Price is. 6d. net.

This is one of the latest additions to the tasteful "Famous Scots" Series. It is a sketch rather than a biography, and as such it will have its own place. The writer has the advantage of having Professor George Adam Smith's larger work before him, and he owns his indebtedness to it. But he strikes out a pathway for himself, endeavouring to show how Henry Drummond's mind and influence grew, and to give an estimate of his work. Mr. Simpson has also been able to make use of a considerable amount of new matter, consisting of letters hitherto unpublished, the draft of what was intended to form a preface to a new edition of Natural Law in the Spiritual World, etc. The book is well written. It will help many to understand Henry Drummond better in the several stages of his religious experience and his activity. The chapters which make up the second part and deal with questions of science and religion, particularly as they were put by Henry Drummond, are of special value.

An opportune addition is made to the already rich literature on the great Saxon Reformer by Dr. Martin Rade in his Doktor Martin Luther's Leben, Thaten und Meinungen.1 It is a popular Life, addressed expressly to the people, not to the scholar, written with the view of bringing Luther close to them and helping them to see clearly what he was. The author's plan is to tell the story as far as possible in Luther's own words, in the direct, homely, vigorous, racy language with which he got at once to the heart of the German people of his own time. In this way we have page after page of vivid writing drawn from the Reformer's letters, sermons, books, etc. Nothing could be better for the purpose in view. The first of the three volumes into which the work extends deals with the period from 1483 to 1520. It gives a lively and attractive account of Luther's parentage, school-days, visit to Rome, and early conflicts, external and internal, on to his final breach with the Papacy. It also gives at length the most important documents and publications belonging to the period, the Theses, the Address to the Christian Nobility, the Freedom of the Christian Man, etc., and large extracts from the sermon on Good Works, the Babylonish Captivity, etc.

The second volume is entirely taken up with the narrative of the period from 1520 to 1525, the period of the Diet of Worms, the retirement in the Wartburg, etc., closing with the Reformer's marriage. Here again we have transcriptions of important publications, his sermons on John xx. 19-31, Philippians iv. 4-7, etc., and large extracts from his notable discourses on Luke ii. 1-14 and Psalm xxxvii., his public utterances in connexion with the Peasants' War, etc. In these we see him face to face with the people. The third volume covers a much larger field. It takes the whole period from 1525 to 1546. Here we get a good account of the origin and early history of the Lutheran Church, an appreciative esti-

¹ Doktor Martin Luther's Leben, Thaten und Meinungen, auf Grund reichlicher Mittilungen aus seinen Briefen und Schriften dem Volke erzählt. Von Dr. Theol. Martin Rade (Paul Martin). 3 vols. Neusalza i. S.: Hermann Oeser; Tübingen und Leipzig: J. C. B. Mohr. 8vo, pp. 772+746+770. Price M. 13.50.

mate of Luther in his domestic, ministerial and academic relations, and a touching picture of his later years, his last journey, his death and his burial. A very full and most useful index is added.

The work is to be looked at in the light of its declared object. There are respects in which it might be open enough to criticism. But as a popular representation of a great career it is certainly well done. It keeps its proper purpose steadily in view, and does justice to it. The personality, the life, the work of Luther, these are inexhaustible themes. Many hands may try their skill on them still, and much will be left for others to do. By the preparation of these volumes the author has done a service to the mass of the German people. It is to be hoped that they will be widely read. They will help to give the German people a new interest in the man to whom they owe so much. They will help them to understand his greatness, his European importance, his large, German nature, and what he did for the German nation in particular.

S. D. F. SALMOND.

Notices.

In the Journal of Theological Studies for January, Professor Swete writes on "Eucharistic Belief in the Second and Third Centuries". He remarks on the "significant absence in Ante-Nicene monuments of any reference to the adoration of Christ in the Eucharist". His opinion is that while the Church of that period "took Christ's words as true, and revered the Bread and Cup which He called His Body and Blood," we have no evidence to show that she "based on this belief and reverent attitude a system of practical devotions such as that which was afterwards built upon them". Dr. Hastings Rashdall examines "Dr. Moberly's Theory of the Atonement". Dr. Rashdall's own sympathies are with the views of Maurice, Westcott, and Ritschl. As might be expected, therefore, he does not favour Dr. Moberly's attempt to revive the theory of Dr. John Macleod Campbell, and affirm an objective value for Christ's work in the form of the oblation of a vicarious penitence. He follows Dr. Moberly's argument step by step, and discovers some weaknesses and confusions in it. We cannot indeed regard the view of the Atonement to which he seems to incline as adequate to New Testament teaching, to what sin is, or to the deepest Christian experience. certainly did not satisfy St. Paul, and never could have done so, and it is one in which in many cases men of profound thinking and enlarging knowledge of human nature have been unable to tarry all their days. But Dr. Rashdall's criticisms of Dr. Moberly's book are often very much to the point, especially as regards a certain lack of clearness or coherence in some of its positions. He concludes by charging it with two great defects, viz., a confusion "between an effect produced upon the character of the sinner and an obliteration of sin or guilt which takes place independently of any such effect,"

and a confusion "between the retributive view of punishment and the disciplinary". The latter confusion certainly appears in some measure. With respect to the former the case is not so clear. The effect on character and the effect on standing are indeed different. But the "traditional theology" which Dr. Rashdall thinks Dr. Moberly follows to his hurt does not contemplate the latter as taking place "independently" of the former. We should be surprised to find that Dr. Moberly himself so contemplates it. Under the title of "An Eirenicon from Culture," Dr. Sanday contributes a kindly, and even generous, but at the same time searching criticism of Professor Percy Gardner's A Historic View of the New Testament.

In the January issue of the American Journal of Theology Principal Grant of Kingston writes on "The Outlook of the Twentieth Century on Theology," expecting an increase of spiritual unity which will lead up to organic union, but also anticipating that as a preliminary to organic union the great Churches of the Reformation will re-write their Confessions and adapt them to our own time. The Rev. Abel Millard and Professor G. B. Stevens of Yale contribute interesting papers, the one on "Nathanael Emmons," and the other on "Horace Bushnell and Albrecht Ritschl: a Comparison". Professor Henry Goodwin Smith of Lane Theological Seminary contributes an important statement on the "Beliefs of American Indians". Much curious information is also given in a paper by S. K. Vatralsky on "Mohammedan Gnosticism in America".

The main articles in the January issue of the *Presbyterian* and *Reformed Review* are three in number. Professor Warfield contributes a second paper on the "Printing of the Westminster Confession," showing step by step how the Confession found its way into print in America, and tracing its course there from 1647 (at which date there was but a single printing press in the Colonies) on to 1895. Dr. Edward H. Griffin of Johns Hopkins University deals with "Two Types of Naturalism," comparing the systems of Spinoza and Herbert Spencer. Professor Vos of Princeton writes on the "Scriptural Doctrine of the Love of God," expounding first the Old Testament doctrine as it is given in the Thora and the other books, and then the New

Testament doctrine as it appears in our Lord's own teaching and in that of the Apostles. The paper deals carefully with the questions regarding the relations of the Divine righteousness to the Divine Love, the general and specific aspects of the Divine Love, etc. There is a long list also of reviews of books, all of them done with care. Among others we have a somewhat full and circumstantial examination of Professor George Adam Smith's Criticism and the Old Testament by Professor Matthew Leitch of Belfast, and a very able and incisive review of Gunkel's Genesis, bearing the signature of Kerr Duncan Macmillan, Berlin,

Among other weighty contributions in the first issue of Mind for 1902 we notice specially one by A. W. Benn on the "Later Ontology of Plato," and another by Professor J. S. Mackenzie on the "Hegelian Point of View". The former deals with the Platonic Conception of the Soul, the distinction between teleological and mechanical causation, the substantial identity of mind with its object, the discrepancies between the Timaeus and the Republic, etc.

The International Journal of Ethics for January opens with an interesting paper by Professor Höffding of Copenhagen on "Philosophy and Life". Mr. Bernard Bosanquet contributes a somewhat thin paper on the "Dark Ages and the Renaissance". There is a sensible discussion of the question of the "Modern Workman and Popular Control," by S. M. Lindsay of the University of Pennsylvania. But the contents of this number are popular rather than weighty.

The most remarkable article in the Methodist Review for Jan.-Feb., 1902, is one by President Warren of the University of Boston on "Beginnings of Hebrew Monotheism -the Ineffable Name". It is a statement of a theory of the origin of the Divine name which has occurred also to Halévy and the Rev. G. Margoliouth of the British Museum, viz., that the Hebrew Iah is identical with the Sumerian Ia, Ea, Hea, and that the distinctive name of the God of the Hebrews, therefore, is "in historic reality only the West Semitic form of East Semitic or Proto-Semitic Ea". Dr. Warren's more particular contribution to the subject is the way in which he

applies this equation of Iah = Ea to various points in the Old Testament. Ea being the god of all waters, whose special symbol was the serpent, and who was associated with diseases and their cure, a new light is shed on the call of Moses, his power to remove leprosy and to turn water into blood, as also on the crossing of the Red Sea, the passage of the Jordan, the libation of water to Jehovah recorded in I Sam. vii. 6, the signs asked by Gideon, etc. He suggests further that narratives like that regarding Balaam may be better explained in this way than by any of the schemes of text-dissection propounded by Wellhausen, Freiherr von Gall, and others. He closes with an expression of his conviction that "a serious study of the religion and world-view of the Semitic peoples in Mosaic and Pre-Mosaic times is today more likely to contribute to a just understanding of the beginnings of Hebrew Monotheism than any study of writings composed at so late a period as those of Amos and his successors ".

The first issue of the Bibliotheca Sacra for the year contains a paper by Aaron M. Crane on "The Cleansing of the Temple," the object of which is to show that there are insuperable difficulties in the narrative on the literal interpretation of it. and that these disappear if we take the "temple" in view to be the temple of Christ's body! Professor Frank Hugh Foster contributes an interesting article on "Professor Paine on the Ethical and Christian Trinities". A paper by Justus Newton Brown on "What is the Trinity?" reviews the usual statements of the doctrine, and propounds another expressing the idea that the term Father does not point to the relation which one constituent of the Godhead bears to another, but "suggests God's character and the relation which He sustains to mankind". Among other readable articles we have one on "Huxley and Phillips Brooks," by Dr. William Newton Clarke.

The following articles in recent issues of Theological and Philosophical Journals also deserve notice. "La nouvelle édition des lettres de Sainte-Thérèse," by Louis Valentin, Bulletin de littérature Ecclésiastique, Dec., 1901; "Die Bedeu-

tung der Landflucht," by Pfarrer August Ludwig, Monatsschrift für die Kirchliche Praxis, Dec., 1901; "La Missa Poenitentium dans l'ancienne discipline d'Occident," by A. Boudinhon, Revue d'Histoire et de Littérature religieuses, Jan.-Fév., 1902; a "Further Collection of Latin Proverbs," many of them of very considerable interest, by Morris C. Sutphen in the American Journal of Philology, xxii., 6; a criticism of Harnack's What is Christianity? by John Welford in the Primitive Methodist Quarterly Review, Jan., 1902; a brief paper on "Critical Theology versus Church Theology," by Professor George H. Schodde in the Homiletic Review for Jan., 1902; a review of Zahn's Forschungen zur Geschichte des neutestamentlichen Kanons, by Erik Christensen in the Teologisk Tidsskrift, iii., 1901; a paper on the "Western Text of St. Luke," by the Rev. W. Harloe Dundas in the Churchman, Jan., 1902, generally in favour of the theory of a double recension; a communication on "Ancient Egyptian Beads," by R. C. Clephan in the Antiquary for January; two papers in the January issue of the Biblical World, one by the editor on "Jesus' use of Hyperbole," dealing with the non-resistance sayings and similar absolute words of Jesus and the principle of their interpretation, and another by Professor Shailer Matthews on "The Social Teaching of Paul," which gives a careful study of the "social content of early Messianism"; an article by W. H. Cobb of Boston on "Primary Hebrew Rhythm," in the Journal of Biblical Literature, opposing the early views of Dr. Julius Ley and the theory of Professor Bickell (which he describes as "suicidal") and making much of the simple pendulum movement.

We have also to notice the twelfth volume of *The Preacher's Magazine*, a publication which continues to be ably and successfully conducted by Dr. Arthur E. Gregory, furnishing a remarkable variety of good and useful matter suited to the purposes of the pulpit and the class-room, and to be cordially commended to the attention of ministers and teachers; an interesting and stimulating book by Edwin A. Pratt, *Notable*

¹ London: C. H. Kelly, 1901. 8vo, pp. 580.

Masters of Men,1 containing a series of sketches of successful lives-those of Andrew Carnegie, William and Robert Chambers, Sir George Williams, George Tinworth and others; On the Path of Progress,2 a series of sermons by Henry Latimer Jackson, M.A., of Christ's College, Cambridge, and Sydney University, intended to enforce the need of a forward movement in the National Church, dealing simply and sensibly with such subjects as Loyalty, the New Learning of the Day, etc.; a pamphlet by Shaw Maclaren, entitled "Follow Thou Me," being letters written on joining the Church of Scotland, laying some severe indictments against the modern Church generally, but written in a sincerely religious spirit and affirming the great doctrines of the Christian faith; Bericht über die Literatur zur Religionsgeschichte, ausschliesslich des Christentums aus dem Jahre 1900,4 a careful, useful, and welcome summary of an important section of the recent literature on the history of religion, contributed by Professor Baentsch and Dr. Lehmann to Krüger's Theologischer Jahresbericht and published now in separate form; another part, viz., the eleventh, of W. Muss-Arnolt's Concise Dictionary of the Assyrian Language,5 a much needed work, and one which students of Assyrian will be glad to see progressing under the laborious editor's hand; a pamphlet on Incense,6 by the Rev. W. Harris Winter, A.B., B.D., dealing with certain views of Professor Sanday and Mr. Pullan on the subject, and giving much attention to the proper interpretation of Malachi i. 11, but also arguing out at length and with much force the non-Scriptural character of the ceremonial use of incense, its lack of support in the writings of early Church Fathers, and its illegality in the Episcopal Church of England as "declared again and again

¹ London: Andrew Melrose. Cr. 8vo, pp. 320. Price 3s. 6d.

² London: Elliott Stock, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 96. Price 2s. 6d.

³ Inverness: Melven, 1901. 8vo, pp. 30. Price 1s.

Berlin: Schwetschke u. Sohn, 1901. 8vo, pp. 98. Price 3s.

⁵Assyrian-English-German. Berlin: Reuther u. Reichard; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. Pp. 641-704. Price 58.

⁶ Incense, viewed from Scripture and History. Coatbridge: Pettigrew, 1902. 8vo, pp. 41. Price 1s. net.

by eminent lawyers"; Babylonia and Assyria,1 by Ross G. Murison, M.A., B.D., Lecturer on Oriental Languages, University College, Toronto, a sketch of the history of these ancient world-powers, written in excellent style, thoroughly scholarly and reliable, with concise and instructive summaries of what is known of the civilisation, literature and religion, as well as the fortunes of these great peoples; Studies in the Acts of the Apostles,2 by the Rev. William Robertson, M.A., Coltness, and Lessons on the Gospel of St. Mark, by Rev. A. Irvine Robertson, D.D., Clackmannan, two recent additions to the series of "Guild Text-Books," very suitable for the purpose in view, expounding and illustrating the main points in the narratives in a capable, useful and practical way, and giving evidence of careful study; an edition of The Book of Proverbs, 4 issued by Messrs. Gay and Bird as part of their "Bible Classics" series, a pocket volume in very attractive form.

Professor Strack has recently issued a third revised edition of his *Grammar of Biblical Aramaic*,⁵ which first appeared in 1896. In addition to an outline of the grammar of Biblical Aramaic, the Aramaic portions of Daniel and Ezra are given with various readings and notes. An excellent glossary completes the work. Its extremely moderate price puts it within the reach of every student. We have also received the same scholar's edition of the Mishnah treatise *Aboth*,⁶ also in a third edition. Professor Strack here provides a fully vocalised text with copious notes of this famous treatise, the study of which in the original forms the best possible introduction to the study of post-biblical Hebrew.

¹ Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark. Pp. 116. Price 6d.

² London: A. & C. Black. Pp. 154. Price 6d. net.

³ Ibid. Pp. 149. Price 6d. net.

⁴ London: Gay & Bird. Pp. 135. Price 6d. net.

⁵ Grammatik des biblisch-aramäischen, etc. Von Professor Dr. H. L. Strack. Dritte grosstentheils neubearbeitete Auflage. Leipzig: Hinrichs. Price M.2.

⁶Die Sprüche der Väter, etc. Dritte wesentlich verbesserte Auflage. Leipzig: Hinrichs. M.1.20.

Record of Select Literature.

I.—OLD TESTAMENT.

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Addendum re Wordsworth's Ministry of Grace.

On reviewing his review in the January number, the writer feels that he used one or two phrases which seem to ignore an element in the bishop's book referring to home reunion within certain restricted limits. It resolves itself practically into a single passage, but one which certainly deserved quotation, as it has wider possibilities than are explicitly contemplated in the author's own words. Speaking of the fact that in some churches, especially Rome and Alexandria, there were at first only two orders, so that the episcopate was subsumed under the order of presbyters, he says that this "has much to recommend it as a practical basis for that reunion between Episcopalians and Presbyterians which is one of the most obviously necessary tasks of English-speaking Christianity" (p. 142). As, however, this seems to confine the present or practical outlook towards reunion to a type of organisation but very slightly represented in his own diocese, and in England, as a whole, as compared with the older and more numerous non-Episcopal churches south of the Tweed, the reviewer felt that it hardly affected the general complaint he had to make.

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The Revised Bible-American and English.

The Holy Bible, containing the Old and New Testaments translated out of the original tongues, being the Version set forth A.D. 1611, compared with the most ancient authorities and revised A.D. 1881-1885. Newly edited by the American Revision Committee, A.D. 1901. Standard Edition. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 37 East 18th Street.

It is somewhat surprising that so little notice has been taken of the fact that the English-speaking world now possesses two standard editions of the Revised Bible, an English and an American. It was anticipated when the work was in progress that that might come to be the case. What was regarded as a possibility, but not as the result most to be desired, has now become actual fact. We have before us the American form of the Revised Bible, the Standard American edition, issued under the authority of the American Committee and bearing the signatures of the secretaries of the two companies of American Revisers. The appearance of this book is a notable fact in the history of the English Bible. It gives more definite and unmistakable expression than ever was given before to the differences between the two bodies of Revisers in the general conception of what a Revision suitable to modern times should be, and to the more important points of divergence in the handling of the text, and in the rendering. It raises anew the question as to which of the editions of the Revision is to be preferred on the whole. It leads one to ask whether the differences are so numerous or so serious as to make it impossible to speak of the Revision as a unity. It turns our minds again to the way in which things have fared with the Revised Version since the day when it was received with impatient eagerness, hot from the press, by the expectant people, and to the likelihoods of the future that lies now before it on both sides of the Atlantic.

From the first the co-operation of American scholars was felt to be of the utmost importance. It was formally suggested as early as 7th July, 1870, in the Canterbury Convocation. In due time an unsolicited but official invitation was forwarded, Bishop Ellicott, chairman of the New Testament Company, sending a letter, and Dr. Angus crossing the Atlantic with authorisation to arrange matters. A plan of co-operation was drawn up, and a committee of about thirty members was organised by 7th December, 1871. Dr. Philip Schaff was chosen President, and the Committee was divided into an Old Testament Company, presided over by Dr. Woolsey of New Haven, and a New Testament Company, presided over by Dr. Green of Princeton. The Committee did not begin its work till 4th October, 1872, by which time the first revision of the Synoptical Gospels had been completed by the English Revisers and transmitted to their American brethren. The American Committee came into existence, therefore, informally, without any public American authorisation, and simply in virtue of the power vested in the English Committee by the Convocation of Canterbury. In the nature of the case it was not a Church movement. No American religious body was officially consulted except the Protestant Episcopal Church, and that Church declined to act officially. The Committee, however, contained members of nine different denominations, and had a sufficient representation of the best Biblical scholarship of the time. It worked all through with remarkable harmony as well as efficiency, on the same general principles as had been affirmed by the English Revisers and with the view of producing, by the labours of the two Committees, a revision which might be accepted by both countries. The New Testament Company concluded its work on 22nd October, 1880, and the Documentary History of the movement was issued in 1885.

There were some nice points to settle with regard to the relations between the two Committees, the agreement with the University Presses, and other matters. All difficulties, financial and other, were happily adjusted, however, in course of time, and the final arrangement, which was necessarily

of the nature of a compromise, worked well. It was to the effect that the English Revisers were to give special consideration to all the American suggestions before they concluded their labours, and were to allow the American Revisers to embody in an Appendix all the differences in reading and rendering which were deemed of importance and had not been adopted by the English body; while the American Revisers engaged to support the circulation of the edition of the English University Presses and to refrain from issuing an edition of their own for the period of fourteen years.

Our American brethren, therefore, have not been in haste to take advantage of their rights. They have allowed some years to elapse since the expiry of the engagement by which they bound themselves not to publish. Many editions have been issued in America, but not with their sanction or by their act. Immediately on the publication of the English edition more than thirty reprints appeared in America. One of these was produced by photographic process a few hours after the English edition came to hand. Some of these editions were not exact reproductions, but Americanised forms in which the Appendix was reversed. In some the American renderings were given as footnotes, in others they were placed in the margin. The hope which the American Committee had never ceased to entertain, that the American preferences, or most of them, might by and by be accepted, was extinguished when the English Committee was disbanded after the completion of its labours in 1885. The American Committee, however, having in view the possibility of a call for an American edition, kept together after that period, and continued its labours. Finding, as is said in the preface to the work now before us, that "the judgment of scholars, both in Great Britain and in the United States, has so far approved the American preferences that it now seems to be expedient to issue an edition of the Revised Version with those preferences embodied in the text," they have at last given to the public this special recension of the Revised Bible. It may be well to add that this is a very different book from another which was published in 1898 in our own country with the title "American Revised Version with References". That publication simply transferred to the text the matter which had been consigned to the Appendix. The edition now issued by the American scholars is, as we shall see, vastly more than that.

It will be at once admitted that they are entirely justified

in the step they have taken. It would no doubt have been most satisfactory to have had one and the same version for all sections of the English-speaking people. But there are advantages on the other side. There is something to be gained by having these two editions, and if the issue of this American edition gives a fresh impetus to the study of the version and quickens anew the interest in it which has been flagging, the gain will be all the more. The differences no doubt are considerable, but they touch nothing essential. A renewed comparison of the two forms only brings out more clearly the fact that they are not more than two recensions of one and the same version. Now that there has been time for reflection and public opinion has had a lengthened opportunity of forming, it will also be generally confessed, we believe, that in not a few cases the American decisions were the better decisions and might have been accepted by the English Committee instead of being relegated to the Appendix. The extent and the nature of the differences between the

two bodies of revisers are both made more apparent by the publication of this standard edition for the United States. The amount of the divergence is an interesting question. But it is difficult to determine it. The most careful calculation that has been made is probably that by Bishop Lee, a member of the American New Testament Company. Taking as the basis of his estimate certain parts of the work that were done independently by the American Committee, viz., the first revisions of a portion of Isaiah, the Epistle to the Hebrews and the Book of Job, he brought out the general result that in about half of the whole number of changes the two committees agreed, while in the other half most cases admitted of easy adjustment. In the instance of the Epistle

to the Hebrews 476 out of the 913 changes made by the Americans coincided with those made by the English. In that of the Book of Job the identical changes amounted to 451 per cent., while the cases of substantial coincidence amounted to 582 per cent. The Appendix itself as we have it represents but the minimum of change. In at least 680 instances the Americans gave up their own preferences, and the materials for the Appendix 1 were to that extent reduced. Concessions were also made on the English side. Many of the suggestions of the American revisers were ultimately adopted by the English Committee, not a few of them of considerable interest. Examples of these are seen in "food" for "meat" (Matt. iii. 4 and elsewhere), "the Jordan," "epileptic" for "lunatic," "turn" for "be converted" (Matt. xviii. 3, John xii. 40, etc.), "seventy times seven" for "seventy times and seven" (Matt. xviii, 22), "the daughter of Herodias herself" for "his daughter Herodias" (Mark vi. 22), "Quirinius" for "Quirinus" (Luke ii. 2), "rulers of the Pharisees" for "chief Pharisees" (Luke xiv. 1), "teaching" for "doctrine" (John vii. 16, 17), etc., etc. Others were placed in the margin, e.g., "the genealogy" for "the book of the generation" (Matt. i. 1), "authority" for "power" (Matt. ix. 6, 8), "alien" for "stranger" (Luke xvii. 18), "or, sanctuary" for "temple" (John ii. 19, 20, 21, and elsewhere), "fulness" for "full assurance" (Heb. vi. 17).

We shall have a very imperfect idea, however, of what this

¹A curious fact appeared with regard to the Appendix, to which attention was called by Dr. Schaff in his Companion to the Greek Testament and English Version. The Americans prepared a careful introductory Note to be prefixed to the Appendix. It ran in these terms: "The American New Testament Revision Company, having in many cases yielded their preferences for certain readings and renderings present the following instances in which they differ from the English Company as in their view of sufficient importance to be appended to the Revision, in accordance with an understanding between the Companies". For this the English Company, as it would seem without giving any explanation, substituted the heading "List of readings and renderings preferred by the American Committee, recorded at their desire. See Preface to New Testament."

American edition is and how it differs from our own, if we suppose that all that has been done is to transfer the matter in the Appendix to the text. The Appendix itself has been carefully revised. It had to be completed under pressure in order to prevent delay in the publication of the English version, which the people were so urgent to have. It did not satisfy the Americans themselves, particularly in textual questions. They have, therefore, not limited themselves to a simple incorporation of the matter of the Appendix as it stood into the text, but have reconsidered many of the readings and have inserted into the text now not a few of those that had been excluded by the conditions of the English vote. They have introduced in like manner into the body of the book a large number of renderings which for the same reason did not find a place. In some cases they have returned to the readings of the Authorised, or have withdrawn from preferences formerly intimated. They have made a number of changes for the sake of consistency (e.g., a much larger use of the word "justice" for "judgment"), or with a view to distinction in terms (especially, e.g., the distinction between the words "stranger," "foreigner" and "sojourner"), or on the ground of euphemism (e.g., the substitution of "heart" for "bowels" in Jer. iv. 19, Lam. i. 20). They have carried out more fully the practice of replacing obsolete expressions by others more intelligible—the displacement of "his" or "her" by "its" in the case of "impersonal objects not personified"; the substitution of "who," "that" for "which" where personal objects are in view; of "are" for "be" in indicative clauses; of "a" for "an" before h aspirated; the removal of unnecessary or confusing Hebraisms, such as "mine eye spared them from destroying them" (Ezek, xx, 17), "they that may be to do the service" (Num. viii. 11), etc.

In the matter of punctuation they have returned in a good many cases to the way of the Authorised. They have used the colon less frequently and the hyphen more frequently. In some passages (Gen. ii. 5, xiv. 24; Ezek. xxix. 9, 10) they modify the sense by modifying the punctuation. They have paid special attention to the arrangement of the contents or

sections, and have made improvements in a good many instances on the paragraphs adopted in the English edition.

Among other changes which will now justify themselves on the whole to many on this side of the Atlantic as well as the other, we may reckon the introduction of the name "Jehovah" for the "Lord" or "God" of the English version in the Old Testament. It is true of course that "Jehovah" is not a correct representation of the Ineffable Name, but it is the nearest euphonious approach to it and it is a word long naturalised in English. It is to be preferred, therefore, on the whole. The Americans themselves, however, fail with the name "Jah". That name has its own value, and it is of frequent occurrence, but, while in other versions it has been inconsistently dealt with, it disappears here altogether. It is an improvement, again, to have Sheol uniformly used, where the English revisers vary between it and "grave," "pit," "hell"; the term "Holy Spirit" statedly instead of the variation between "Holy Spirit" and "Holy Ghost"; "try," "make trial of," etc., instead of "tempt," "temptation," where the idea of evil is not immediately in view; "demon," "demoniac," etc., for "devil," "possessed with a devil," etc. It is also a legitimate return to ancient practice to adopt the simpler titles of the books, dropping the "S." (= Saint) before the names of the writers and in the headings of the pages of the Gospels, the term "the Apostle" in the titles of the Pauline Epistles, the misleading words "of Paul the Apostle" in the title of the Epistle to the Hebrews, the term "General" in the designation of the Epistles of James, Peter, I John, and Jude, and the description of the writer of the book of Revelation as "S. John the Divine" (instead of simply "John").

There are other points of advantage which may be claimed with some reason for the American edition. There are other terms in the rendering of which it is better and more consistent. It preserves, e.g., the proper distinction between the two Hebrew words expressing the distinct ideas of "assembly" and "congregation". It does away with the exaggerated "God forbid!" It deals on the whole very suitably with phrases for which good English usage can no longer be pleaded, such as "smell thereto" (Exod. xxx. 38), "a fool's vexation is heavier than them both" (Prov. xxvii. 3). It deals with a freer hand than the English revisers allowed themselves with archaic, obsolete and obscure terms, and on the whole it must be admitted to be successful in a large number of instances both in the words selected for removal and in the simpler and more modern forms substituted for them. It relieves the text of such terms as "basilisk" for "adder," "chapiter" for "capital," "charges" for "offices," "coasts" for "borders," "duke" for "chief," "oil" for "ointment," "ouches" for "settings," "poll" for "cut the hair of," "in good liking" for "become strong" (Job xxxix. 4), "bolled" for "in bloom" (Exod. ix. 31),1 "charger" for "platter" (Matt. xiv. 8, and elsewhere), "vain," "vanity" for "false," "falsehood"; as also such forms as "lade" for "load," "afore" for "before," "astonied" for "astonished," "wot," "wist," "listeth," "listed" for "know," "knew," "will," "would," etc., for which more is to be said on the other side.

There are other cases in which changes are made which are on the whole reasonable, but which are not carried out so successfully or consistently. We have instances of that in the term "spoil," for which a variety of words, "despoil," "plunder," "ravage" and others are now substituted. One or other of these is selected as best suiting the context or the particular idea, but the reason for the preference is not clear in all cases, nor is the word "spoil" in each instance either unintelligible or obviously incorrect. A better example is seen, however, in the use of "shall" and "will". This is confessedly difficult and disputable ground, and the attempt at greater consistency which is made here will not be regarded as eminently successful. There is also the interesting case of the rendering of coins. Certain inconsistencies and inaccuracies were left untouched by the English revisers. They had some justification for so acting, especially in the case of the δηνάριον, for which it is difficult

¹ The reference is wrongly given in the Preface, p. vi., as Exod. ix. 4.

to find any proper and universally applicable equivalent. But it is not easy to see why they should have taken "farthing" twice as the rendering of ἀσσάριον and twice as that of κοδράντης, or "penny," "pence," "pennyworth" fifteen times as the equivalent of the $\delta ην$ άριον. The American edition gives "mite" for λέπτον, "farthing" for κοδράντης, "penny" for ἀσσάριον, and "shilling" for δηνάριον. In the passages about the rendering of tribute (Matt. xxii. 19; Mark xii. 15; Luke xx. 24), however, they still fall back on the Latin denavius

There is one matter of some importance in which the earlier position as expressed in the Appendix is modified. That is the attitude adopted toward the appeal to ancient versions. The American revisers objected to the frequent references made by the English Committee to the versions and other ancient "authorities". They thought many of them of trifling importance and all of them too vague, as they also made more of the "extreme difficulty," as they put it, of correcting the Hebrew text by these. They laid down the absolute position, therefore, that "all renderings from the LXX, Vulgate, and other ancient versions or 'authorities' "were to be omitted from the margin. They now admit that this was too sweeping, and that there are some variations of the kind in view that are of sufficient importance to be recorded. They keep, therefore, about a sixth part of the references in the English revision, but make them more definite and specific in their statement.

There is, therefore, a very considerable number of American preferences that have reason on their side and that are likely to win a larger measure of acceptance after these long years of proof than they had when they were first declared. On the other hand there are a good many things of a different kind. It is to be regretted, for example, that in not a few cases the edition fails to print supplied words in italics where the words are of the nature of additions and interpretations. It carries to a needless length the process of removing archaic forms, and in this way it takes from the charm of some old familiar passages without bringing us any adequate com-

pensation in lucidity or in point. No imperative reason rising out of the requirements of intelligibility can be urged on behalf of such alterations as "find favor" for "find grace," "refine," "refiner" for "fine," "finer," "frighten" for "fray," "perverse" for "froward," "devise" for "imagine," "maiden" for "maid," "abundant" for "plenteous," "interest" for "usury," etc. And speaking generally it must be said that if the English revisers in many cases erred on the side of literal renderings, the Americans have gone now and then to the other extreme of obtrusively modern forms of speech and great freedom in translation.

There is much else to be said of this American edition than can be said at present. There are other characteristics of the American work of which we may speak on another occasion. There is much to learn from it. The book is admirably printed and does credit to the publishers, Messrs. Thomas Nelson & Sons. It is to be had at prices ranging from a dollar and a half to nine dollars. We hope a cheap, popular edition may be issued soon. In closing their preface to the New Testament section the editors express their belief that the volume "will on the one hand bring a plain reader more closely in contact with the exact thought of the sacred writers than any version now current in Christendom, and on the other hand prove itself especially serviceable to students of the Word". In this belief, they tell us, they "bid it anew God-speed, and in the realisation of this desired result they will find their all-sufficient reward". All lovers of Scripture will rejoice if the expectation thus expressed is made good.

S. D. F. SALMOND.

Die Synoptische Frage.

Von Lic. Paul Wernle, Privatdocent an der Universität Basel. Freiburg-i.-B.; Leipzig und Tübingen: J. C. B. Mohr (Paul Siebeck), 1899. 8vo, pp. xii. + 256. Price M.4.50.

THE CRITICAL REVIEW is probably not singular in allowing a notice of Wernle's Synoptische Frage to succeed one of his later work, Die Anfänge unserer Religion (1901). The work of a young author on the eternal critical problem is apt to be overlooked, even by those who are impressed, as many readers of the Anfänge have been, by what may be called his positive structure. But if the Anfänge is a remarkable book, the Syn. Frage is, in its own way, hardly less so. Perhaps it should be studied with most care by those whose feelings about the Anfänge are almost equally divided between admiration and alarm. Wernle does not profess to take up the Synoptic problem ab initio. His masters are H. J. Holtzmann, Weizsäcker and B. Weiss. He holds with them the double origin hypothesis (i.e., Mark + the Logia Document), but declines to burden his own or his reader's imagination (as the two last-named authors do) with an Original Mark or an Ebionitic Redaction of the Logia. A refreshing quality of the book is its dislike of merely possible documents. A critic must have space—the larger the better —for possible documents. But the space is the lumber-room to which the mind consigns its unsolved problems. In the workshop all the space is needed for what is actual and what is probable. Following this principle Wernle finds it possible to bring into the workshop what some of his masters, perhaps without knowing it, had consigned to the lumber-room. An instance in point is the so-called Ebionitism of Luke. Wernle allows the Ebionitic-he prefers to call it the Catholic or Catholicising-element in the Third Gospel, but he finds much

to support the view that it belongs to the evangelist himself, the author of the Acts and the painter of the two centurions with their meritorious preparation for the evangelic blessing (Luke vii. 1 ff.; x. 1 ff.). Wernle does not, like Professor Ramsay, rehabilitate Luke as an historian, but he pays ample tribute to his originality and great literary skill. For instance, in regard to the large sections of Luke which break away from the Mark-thread (vi. 20 to viii. 3; and ix. 51 to xviii. 14), he thinks it reasonable to ascribe almost entirely to Luke's invention the "occasions" (e.g., our Lord praying or dining with a Pharisee) there provided for introducing the material taken from the Logia Document. Those who find such a result staggering, may be partly reassured by Wernle's emphatic refusal to ascribe to the same source the discourses of our Lord (e.g., the Prodigal Son) that are peculiar to Luke. As well, says Wernle, ascribe to Luke the origin of Christianity. An instance of Wernle's concession of the value of a lumber-room is his attitude to the Judaistic element in Matthew (v. 18 f.; x. 5; xxiii. 2 f.). In view of Matthew's quite pronounced and characteristic aversion to Jewish particularism (e.g., viii. 11 f.; xxviii. 19), Wernle thinks that among many recensions of the Logia Document (=Q) there must have been one of a Judaistic type (QJ.), and in view of the differing types of the same original in Matthew and Luke (e.g., eight blessings over against four blessings and four woes), he is willing to place in his lumberroom beside QJ, a QMT and a QLK. On the linguistic question Wernle opposes a decided negative to all theories of Aramaic documents. The work of Dalman, Arnold Meyer and others has its place as a test of what may be primitive in oral tradition, but it has nothing to do with the literary structure of our Gospels, none of which (Matthew even less than Mark) s of the nature of a translation.

What then of the Aramaic Matthew of Papias? Wernle thinks that from the time of Schleiermacher criticism has followed a false scent in supposing that Papias meant by the Logia which Matthew wrote a mere discourse-document and not a full-fledged Gospel, which latter he regarded (Wernle

thinks quite erroneously) as the original in Aramaic of our Matthew. There may have been such a Gospel, but for the study of our Gospels it belongs purely to the lumber-room. There was certainly a Logia-Document from which Matthew and Luke borrowed, but everything points to its having been Greek. The yield of Papias to the Synoptic problem is at most the name Matthew, an apostle indeed, but one of whom we know nothing, for according to Mark—our sole primitive authority on the matter—the name of the publican whom Jesus called was Levi, the Son of Alphaeus (Mark ii. 14).

As regards the termination of Mark, Wernle concedes that Mark could not have meant to end at xvi. 8, but he is certain that neither Matthew nor Luke knew of the conclusion (vers. 9 ff.). Ver. 7 is sufficient to account for the closing Galilaean scene in Matthew, while the slightness of the hint about Galilee tempts Luke, the historian in the Acts of the movement that begins in Jerusalem, to adopt the traditions—oral rather than written—of appearances in and about Jerusalem.

In an appendix Wernle discusses the relation to the Synoptics of the Gospel of John, the Gospel to the Hebrews and the Gospel of Peter. Most will readily agree with Wernle as to the secondary nature of the two last, but Wernle's attitude to John may perhaps even to his own view bear some amending in the light of Wendt's work (Das Evangelium Johannis, 1900). In view of such a detailed apparent proof as Wendt has given of the composite structure of the Fourth Gospel, Wernle must give the shrift of a fuller discussion to the question whether there are not in that Gospel elements—narrative as well as discursive—which bring it nearer the level of what is most reliable in the synoptics than he has allowed.

Though no space has been given to criticism, this notice is too brief even for the purpose of praise. It conveys no idea of the thoroughness of Wernle's critico-literary work, nor of the singular deftness of its arrangement. Literary criticism of the Gospels can hardly be made easy, but Wernle has done much to make it as easy as possible, and even if

his work were no more (it is much more) than to make Holtzmann easier reading it would be worth our thanks.

The more thoroughly we deal with the literary problem treated in the *Syn. Frage*, the more distinct becomes the throb of the vital questions that lie behind it and give it an interest ever freshening and deepening.

I. Is there in the Gospels an element that is merely edifying, but has nothing to do with history—whether? or how

much?

2. Is the miraculous element part of it—whether? or how much?

Probably most readers of the Critical Review have passed in both cases beyond the stage of whether and are asking how much? Yet even the remnant who take their stand at whether may learn something from the faith (if not the knowledge) of scholars like Wernle who are sure that the divine glory of Jesus shines in spite of as well as through the Gospels.

LEWIS A. MUIRHEAD.

Monasticism and the Confessions of St. Augustine.

Two Lectures by Adolf Harnack, Rector and Professor, etc., etc.
Translated by E. E. Kellett, M.A., and F. H. Marseille,
Ph.D. London and Oxford: Williams & Norgate, 1901.
Cr. 8vo, pp. 171. Price 3s. 6d.

Professor Harnack is an idealist before everything. His power of wing is great, his flight bold and rapid, his contacts with terra firma comparatively rare. In order to sustain himself on air, he is obliged to discard the impedimenta of the concrete, and, once rid of them, the idea generates its own impetus; and the idealist is carried forward, like the poet's Camilla, over waving cornfield or tossing surge, without paying homage to gravitation. Of course this places him in sympathy with his subject, when discussing Monachism and its kindred formations. Benedict of Nursia, Hildebrand, Peter the Hermit, Dominic, Francis of Assisi, Ignatius Loyola, were each mastered by a great idea, and moulded themselves and the institutions which embalm their names upon it.

The principal factor which wrought in the early Western Monasticism was probably the outburst of all forms of social evil which attended the break-up of the Roman Empire and the rise of the barbarous kingdoms upon its ruins. This combined with the exhaustion for active good of a Church which "was no longer in a position to give peace to all that came to her and to shelter them from the world. She could promise a peace beyond the grave, but peace in the storms of life she could not secure. Then began the great upheaval" (p. 35).

How to rally from this cry of havoc and this spiritual decrepitude "the things which remained and were ready to die"; how to give them concentration and mutual support; how to form a home where the elements of spirituality might Vol. XII.—No. 3.

reproduce and perpetuate themselves, instead of being swept down, scattered, pulverised, and lost in the thundering torrent of anarchy, was the problem which St. Benedict set himself to solve.

A great idea formed thus under stress of pressure is necessarily one-sided. And those who stand arrayed under its flag are like a phalanx which can only move upon one of its faces. Assume that after a century of effort they succeed in restoring a tolerable standard of society, their very success then reveals their peril. The pressure relaxes, an over-strain exhausts and an over-balance impairs effort. Then follow various stages and degrees of decadence and apathy. The Papacy takes every successive new movement into its bosom, to contract the virus of secularism there. A new idealist starts with a scourging reform, or modifies the old idea in a new direction. Every new order hunts the tail, so to speak, of the one preceding, exposes its weakness, declaims against its corruptions and seems to build upon its experience, and to learn wisdom from its failures: then follows its example, declines into inefficiency, becomes as salt that has lost its savour, and gives way in its turn to new-fangled models. Meanwhile the Middle Ages have run away, the renaissance has appeared, and human spiritual thought has come under the influence of a New Testament, rising as it were from the dust of those ages, clothing itself in the vernacular and multiplying itself everywhere by the mere mechanical agency of the press. These facts are partly touched by Professor Harnack, as follows :--

"Then (eleventh century) arose the Carthusians, the Cistercians, the Præmonstratensians, the Carmelites and many other Orders. But the constant appearance of fresh Orders only shows that Monasticism, in alliance with the secular Church, was ever losing its special character. Each new Order sought to call back the monks to their old austerity and to drag them away from Secularisation; but in the very act of subjecting itself to the secular Church, it was annexed and exploited by the Church."

The ideal indeed of Western Monasticism was one-sided from the first. Social life had become such a vorago of iniquity that the only safety lay in cutting one's self off from it. Hence whatever was most anti-social became regarded as most elevating and purifying; just as to a large mass of the Reformers in the sixteenth century whatever was furthest from Rome seemed nearest to truth. Thus the Orders threw themselves with eager zeal into renunciation of property and marriage, and tended mostly to foster the notion of asceticism as an end in itself. What men renounce for themselves they are mostly ready to denounce in others; and the line which divides a counsel of perfection from a requirement of general observance becomes indistinct in the atmosphere of spiritual pride. Thus the Council of Gangra (A.D. 324) justifies some of its Canons as follows: "We write not these things to cut off any from the Church of God, who are minded to give themselves to an ascetic life according to the Scriptures, but only those who make such a life an occasion of pride, to lift themselves up above those who live in a more plain and simple manner, introducing novelties against the Scriptures and the rules of the Church. We admire virginity when accompanied with humility: and applaud continency, when attended with gravity and piety; but we also honour cohabitation in chaste marriage," etc. Every sentence of the above rebukes the spirit which either animated from the first the Western Monastic system, or was speedily imbibed by it.

The optimism of our idealist leads him to lose sight of corrupt and repulsive features which dog the course of monkery throughout, while they appear so early as to seem probably innate in it. He discusses the mediæval Papacy without a hint at the forged Decretals of the pseudo-Isidore—the broad, barefaced and wholesale falsehood which nursed a contagion of mendacity in all the Orders pledged to its support. There is probably none of the greater religious houses in this country which would have scrupled at forging a charter to its own advantage. The idea circulated universally, that the interests of the Order, the Papacy, or the House itself, were things so intrinsically sacred, that a lie or a forgery in support of them was more meritorious than the unvarnished truth which was hostile to them. It there-

fore became impious even to question them. Those forged Decretals emanated undoubtedly not from Pope Nicholas I. or his curia directly, but were hatched in some Gallican monastery in conjunction with some who knew the Romish tradition of the line of early Popes. They were greedily adopted by that Pontiff and his successors; and thus a common interest in a common infamy—one which all agreed to whitewash—was shared by the religious houses with the Papacy. The momentum thus given in the ninth century to mendacity culminated in the Jesuits of the sixteenth, and abides a living and moving force in the Ultramontist policy at this day.

These are some among the concretes which our idealistic professor prefers to sink out of sight, by which process he is able to impart a fascinating surface of terete rotundity to the subject discussed.

As regards the differentiation of the Eastern from the Western Monasticism, it comes nearly to this: The central Western patriarchate battened on imperial decay. and promoted monastic settlements in all countries which had formed the Western Empire, and more. Those settlements served it as the military colonies had served that Empire when it flourished, extending, recruiting, consolidating, satellitising it. The Eastern Empire did not decay, it fossilised; and contact with it tended to fossilise both the Church and the monastic system. Tzarism repeats Justinianism. The magic youth of the Arabian Nights, who was exactly half-man and half-black marble, is no bad type of it. We miss in the Eastern Church also any rousing influence like the friars-the "Salvation Armies" of the later Middle Ages (as the Crusades formed its S. P. G.) putting the eager question "Are you saved?" or its analogue and equivalent, at the corners of all streets, in tap-room and hostelry, in palace and in hovel. For lack of such agency, the Levantine monasteries still contentedly sleep the sleep of the just. At the very close of the monastic period, in a sky whitening with "renascence," we have such an astonishing work as Thomas à Kempis' great "Imitation"-

western monasticism's "last sigh," as it were. But on its strength and weakness this is no place to dilate.

The second part of the volume, on the Confessions of St. Augustine, is a noble contribution to his memory, and may be accepted with hardly a grain of critical reserve. Or if one must be made, it would be that the Confessions contain somewhat more of "psychological disquisitions on the Understanding, the Will, and the Emotions," than the somewhat sweeping negation on p. 128 allows. They differ indeed from the "moralising introspections of M. Aurelius" (ibid.) in having no independent human standpoint, but referring all to the Deus Creator omnium. A passage from Conf. X., xxv., will illustrate this:—

". . . Veni ad partes eius [memoriae] ubi conmendavi affectiones animi mei, nec illic inveni Te. Et intravi ad ipsius animi mei sedem, quae illi est in memoria mead quoniam sui quoque meminit animus, neibi Tu eras, quia sicut non es imago corporalis nec affectio viventis, qualis est cum laetamur, contristamur, cupimus, metuimus, . . . ita nec ipse animus es quia dominus deus animi Tu es."

The sections of the same Book X., xxxi. . . . xxxvi., which might be headed *De Tentationibus*, illustrate the same thesis still further.

HENRY HAYMAN.

Demonic Possession in the New Testament: its Relations Historical, Medical and Theological.

By Wm. Menzies Alexander, M.A., B.Sc., B.D., C.M., M.D. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark. Post 8vo, pp. xii. + 291. Price 5s.

THE study of demonic possession in the New Testament owes its recognised difficulty to the number of factors involved. There are obvious points of connexion with anthropological phenomena, both in the Semitic and in other fields of inquiry; physiological data are given in certain cases, which must be examined and explained; nor can the study as a whole be conducted without regard to the doctrine of the Person of Christ. Any one, therefore, who can hope to make any useful contribution to our knowledge of this subject must be able to approach it from more than one standpoint. It is the ability to do this (with a varying measure of success) that has enabled Dr. Alexander to write a fresh and vigorous book, distinguished by its breadth of view and its scientific method. It is interesting from beginning to end, and there can be few theological readers who will not find it instructive.

The author's general attitude to the problem before him is one of belief in the genuineness of demonic possession in certain New Testament instances, and of acceptance of Christ's power over this state as miraculous. But the result of his examination of the recorded facts is to limit the genuine cases to a much narrower area than is usually assigned. His particular thesis may be stated in his own words: "Genuine demonic possession, as set forth in the New Testament, contains an element that is natural, another that is supernatural. The former belongs to the category of mental disease and still continues; the latter belongs to the category of Satanic opposition and was summarily suppressed" (p. 12).

In support of this proposition he begins by a brief examination of the demonology of the Old Testament, including the degraded heathen divinities. The Septuagint and the Apocryphal books also are noticed, but most space is naturally given to a statement of Rabbinic demonology, with ethnic parallels. The New Testament phase of the subject is approached by asking: "What was the attitude of Jesus to the foregoing superstitions?" This is answered, not so much by an inductive study of the Gospel narratives, as by deductions from our Lord's general teaching about the spiritual world, His restatement of a pure monotheism, and His "true knowledge of Nature". It is evident that those who do not accept the author's Christology may criticise this procedure. The book shows weakness in its implicit use of certain theological assumptions, e.g., the perfection of our Lord's earthly knowledge. It has already been said that the a priori cannot be excluded from this study, but the exact point of its introduction and the limits of its use should be clearly indicated.

The two following chapters are concerned with the "Medical Aspects of Demonic Possession," and this part of the book is specially valuable. The Synoptic narratives are studied comparatively and critically; it is a pity they have not been printed in parallel columns, by use of smaller type, rather than in successive full-page sections. The exegesis is independent and often striking, and the careful use of minute detail sometimes suggests Professor Ramsay's work. Three cases are taken as typical, those of the demoniacs of Capernaum and of Gerasa, and the boy at the Hill of Transfiguration. These are diagnosed as cases of epileptic insanity, acute mania, and epileptic idiocy respectively. With the help of data so obtained, other asserted instances of possession are examined, viz., those of the Syro-Phœnician girl, the dumb demoniac, the blind and dumb demoniac, Mary Magdalene, the infirm woman, the Philippian Pythoness, the Ephesian demoniac. Some of the particular results should claim attention from future commentators. An attempt is also made to estimate the number of the "possessed" in the time

of our Lord, and the result reached is that there were about 12,000 insane and idiots in Palestine. This piece of unnecessary and insecure guess-work could well have been omitted, and a much fuller treatment given to the section entitled "The Mental Temperament of the People". The importance of the psychological factor in the evolution of Semitic demonology has not been sufficiently brought out by Dr. Alexander. Demonology is one theory of certain psychical and physical phenomena, which we explain in another way; the particular forms and categories of demonology are to be traced back to the ideas of personality which underlie them. To realise the gulf that separates the modern from the ancient psychology, it is only necessary to remember that the ancient world usually conceived the soul as a quasimaterial something, and that it regarded man as accessible to external "spirit" influences in a way utterly foreign to our present day thought of self.

So far, Dr. Alexander's argument has been based on the natural phenomena of demonic possession, viz., those which can be referred to mental disorder. A special chapter is now devoted to the elaboration of his particular thesis as to the existence of genuine demonic possession. He finds the criterion of this to be "the confession of Jesus as the Messiah or Son of God" (p. 150), which he holds to be the product of demonic inspiration, since it cannot be explained as the result of accident, clairvoyance, verbal information or genuine discrimination. The application of this test excludes such alleged cases as that of the idiot boy, the Philippian Pythoness and the Ephesian demoniac, which are explained on purely natural grounds. So defined, the cases of genuine possession are few, and are confined to the earlier portion of Christ's ministry (Mark i. 24, v. 7; and the general cases of i. 34, and iii. 11). In these there is mental disease, with the superadded presence of demonic agency. It is obvious that such a theory as this has too much of the deus ex machina in its constitution to commend itself to the scientific mind. The author is certainly led into an overstatement of his case when he describes it as "equally invincible" (p. 157) with

his conclusions as to the natural element. The theory might have been made a little more plausible by a comparison of Paul's principle, "No man can say, Jesus is Lord, but in the Holy Spirit," but in any case it seems inadequate and arbitrary. To say nothing of philosophical objections, it is open to the criticism that it introduces a differentiation of the cases of which the New Testament betrays no consciousness. When the author has gone so far in his reduction of these cases to the purely psychical, the retention of a "reserve" like this seems artificial and inconsistent, and due to dogmatic rather than exegetical reasons.

The remaining three chapters of the book discuss "The Beelzebub Controversy," "The Difficulties of the Gerasene Affair," and "Alleged Continuance of Genuine Demonic Possession". Beelzebub, "prince of demons," is distinguished from Satan (" Judas is the sole instance of Satanpossession"), and his analogue is found in Babylonian ideas. In regard to Christ's answer to the Pharisaic accusation, the author does not seem to have faced the theological issues involved with sufficient clearness of vision. He says Christ "uses, as the basis of His argument, the language of His opponents; and He had a right to do so" (p. 190). Similarly, in regard to the Philippian Pythoness, it is said, "Paul may have used an ethnic formula without endorsing ethnic doctrine". On the other hand, there is a special discussion of the question "Did Jesus practise accommodation?" (App. O), and the answer is a decided negative, with which few will not agree. It is doubtful if any intermediate point is tenable between the view that what Christ accepted must be true, and that which sees in His attitude to demonic possession a particular example of Kenosis.

The chapter on the Gerasene incident is frank, and does not try to conceal the real difficulties of the narratives. These are said to contain "a certain theory of this occurrence," and it is asserted that "the facts are separable from this theory". Dr. Alexander believes that Jesus did not regard the case as one of manifold possession, nor did He countenance any idea as to the herd of swine, whose stampede

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is explained by the loud voices ("But above those wild shouts of the demoniac rose the voice of Christ"). The discussion of the loss of the swine owners borders on the ludicrous, e.g., "The loss may have been diminished by retrieving the carcases and utilising them afterwards". The closing chapter reviews the evidence available as to "possession," in subapostolic and later times, down to our own day, and brings together much interesting material. The author's conclusion is that "genuine demonic possession was a unique phenomenon in the history of the world; being confined, indeed, to the earlier portion of the ministry of our Lord" (p. 247). He thinks it was due to "a counter-movement of the powers of darkness" called into play by the Incarnation. We do not think Dr. Alexander has proved his thesis,

either as to the genuineness of demonic possession or as to the criterion of its presence, but he has written a very interesting and useful book which students of the New Testament cannot afford to neglect. Nineteen appendices complete the volume, amongst which those on Greek Demonology, Greek Medicine and Witchcraft are worthy of special notice. good example of the author's welcome candour is seen in his rejection of the argument for the authorship of Luke based on its alleged medical details (p. 254, cf. p. 83). The style of the book is generally good, though the language employed is sometimes open to the charge brought by the author against Huxley of "unnecessary vehemence" (cf. "lordly hypocrites" and "saintly villains" of the Pharisees, p. 184). Out-of-the-way words are sometimes preferred, cf. "equipollent" for "equivalent" (p. 210). Authorities might have been quoted much more freely with advantage, e.g., for some of the medical statements or anthropological detail. The reason given in the preface for the omission of such references -"this work is an original research, not a compilation"rests on a misconception. Full and detailed references to sources never conceal the originality of their use from any competent student.

H. WHEELER ROBINSON.

The Book of the Psalms.

Books IV. and V., Psalms xc.-cl. By A. F. Kirkpatrick, D.D., Regius Professor of Hebrew. Cambridge Bible, 1901. Pp. cxii. + 303. Price 2s. net.

The Book of Proverbs.

Critical Edition of the Hebrew Text, with Notes by the late A. Müller, Ph.D., Professor in the University of Halle, and E. Kautzsch, D.D., Professor in the University of Halle. English Translation of the Notes by D. B. Macdonald, B.D. Leipzig: Hinrichs; London: Nutt, 1901. Pp. 864. Price M.5.50, bd. M.7.

Handkommentar zum Alten Testament herausgegeben.

Von Dr. W. Nowack, etc. Esra, Nehemia und Esther, übersetzt und erklärt von D. C. Siegfried. Goettingen: Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht: London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. Pp. 176. Price M.3.80.

The concluding volume of the *Psalms* in the Cambridge Bible is a good example of the careful scholarship which for the most part characterises that series. The introduction deals with the whole Psalter; although it accepts the principles of modern criticism, it shows a certain bias in favour of traditional views. It is, however, only right to say that the evidence is stated with scrupulous fairness, and that the conclusions are given as, for the most part, probable rather than certain. Many of the titles, we are told, "cannot be reconciled with the contents and language of the Psalms to which they are prefixed". But several psalms are held to be pre-exilic. Great stress is laid on the arguments for the existence of Davidic Psalms, and David is held to have

been the founder of the Psalter, but we cannot find-in the introduction at any rate (cf. below)—any explicit statement that the author is convinced that any given psalm is the work of David. He regards it as "doubtful whether any Psalms date from the Maccabæan period". One new piece of evidence adduced is the presence in the Hebrew Ecclesiasticus of a psalm which is largely a cento of phrases from Book V. of our Psalter. Hence, it is argued, the Psalter was complete before the composition of Ecclesiasticus in B.C. 180. It is interesting to note that Professor Kirkpatrick accepts the recently discovered portions of the book as belonging to the original Hebrew, and not to a re-translation from the versions; but we doubt whether the text of these sections is good enough to be followed in such a case against the Septuagint.

Our author evidently has little faith in the various theories which "discover a metrical system in the Psalms, on the basis of quantity, or of number of syllables or accents" (p. lx.).

There is a very sensible discussion of the Imprecatory Psalms, the gist of which is given in the following paragraph: "It is important to observe that they are not dictated merely by private vindictiveness. . . . While it would perhaps be too much to say that they contain no tinge of human passion (for the Psalmists were men of infirmity, and inspiration does not obliterate personal character), they rise to a far higher level. They spring ultimately from zeal for God's cause, and they express a willingness to leave vengeance in the hands of Him to whom it belongs. Retribution is desired and welcomed as part of the Divine order."

Professor Kirkpatrick's views as to the authorship and the titles are best illustrated by the separate introductions prefixed to the individual psalms. He seems inclined to discover pre-exilic psalms in these last two books, to an extent which would not be sanctioned by most modern critics, or, as we think, by the available evidence. Nevertheless he usually sets aside the statements of the titles. He does not ascribe xc. to Moses, or exxvii, to Solomon; of the seventeen psalms assigned by the titles to David, he only accepts ci. Of Psalm

cx. he writes, "If we are free to choose, it seems best to regard the Psalm as addressed to David"—and therefore not spoken by David as our Lord's words are supposed to imply. In his introduction to this psalm Professor Kirkpatrick shows clearly that the authority of Christ is in no way involved in the question of its authorship. He quotes, with obvious approval, "the words of Bishop Thirlwall as given by Bishop Perowne, 'we are left very much in the same position with regard to the Psalm as if our Lord had not asked these questions about it'".

The recently published edition of Proverbs in Dr. Haupt's Sacred Books of the Old Testament is simply a critical text with notes, for the most part, on the textual criticism. As in other volumes, the authors and editor have not been able to refrain from inserting here and there miscellaneous information which they have come across in their study of the text. But the questions of the composition of the book, and of the date and authorship of its various sections are not dealt with. No doubt these subjects are reserved for the English translation in the Polychrome Bible; but, as one special object of the series is to exhibit conspicuously the mode in which the books are composed, the text should have been furnished with headings and other indications of the authors' views. These are entirely absent. Several passages are merely represented by . . . , as being "corrupted beyond emendation," e.g., xiv. 7, which R. V. translates, "Go into the presence of a foolish man, and thou shalt not perceive in him the life of knowledge". This method is far better than printing an impossible reading or a purely speculative conjecture as if it were the true text. Toy's emendation should have been noticed in v. 2, and some reference should have been made to the uncertainty of the text in xxxi. 1. In the list of books on pp. 31, 32 we miss Cheyne's Job and Solomon. Assuming the correctness of the view taken here and in the Polychrome Chronicles that tôrâ is connected with the Assyrian tertu, we doubt whether it is rightly called a

Babylonian loanword, any more than "Church" in English is a German loanword from "Kirche".

In his Esra, Nchemia und Esther Professor Siegfried supports E. Meyer as against Kosters in accepting the substantial historicity of the account of the Return and the genuineness of the documents in Ezra iv.-vii. He rejects the decree of Cyrus (Ezra ii. 2-4). In the translation different kinds of type are used to indicate the various documents; we have not been able to discover any table giving a key to the varieties of type; but the reader will have no great difficulty in constructing one for himself from the introduction.

With regard to Esther our author follows Zimmern, Jensen, and Wildeboer in holding that the story is an adaptation of a Babylonian myth: that Mordecai is to be identified with Marduk, Esther with Ishtar, and Haman with the Elamite deity Humman. The original myth described the victory of the gods of Babylonia over those of Elam. We could have wished for a fuller treatment of the problem of this adaptation of a foreign myth to Jewish use. Purim is held to have been a feast in honour of the dead, and to have been connected with the primitive worship of ancestors rather than with the prophetic Jahwistic religion - neither God nor Jahwoh is mentioned in the book. Possibly the original myth was connected with a Persian feast for the dead, and the Jews borrowed the story because it seemed suitable for a similar function. The composition of the book is assigned to the Maccabæan period. The extreme brevity of the introduction is no doubt responsible for the absence of any discussion of the many difficulties of this position. Would a Jew of that period have adapted a Gentile myth? If he had would he have chosen a story which depicted his countrymen on friendly terms with a heathen master? It is true that Siegfried's view is also held by Cornill, Kautzsch, Wildeboer and others; but we should be inclined to follow Driver in assigning the book to the earlier Greek period.

W. H. BENNETT.

The Progess of Dogma.

By James Orr, M.A., D.D., Glasgow. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 365. Price 7s. 6d.

THE Progress of Dogma is a series of lectures which Professor Orr delivered in the autumn of 1897, before the Western Theological Seminary, Alleghany, Pennsylvania, U.S.A., and the Christian Public, as the fourth course in a series of lectures provided for by the Elliot Lectureship Fund. "It need not be said," says the lecturer in his preface, "that no attempt is made to deal exhaustively with the History of Doctrine. The design of the lectures goes no further than to provide broad outlines, which may suffice to illustrate the principles expounded at the commencement, and serve as an introduction to the subject." The class of readers whose needs Dr. Orr endeavours to meet are those "who, without being professed scholars, feel an intelligent interest in the trend of theological thought throughout the centuries". One object of the lectures is to combat certain of the positions taken up by Harnack in his History of Dogma; but in other respects the material of the lectures is the accumulation of years of thought and study. Within the limits thus imposed upon himself, Professor Orr has produced a valuable, timely and most interesting contribution to an important subject; and though he says that the volume "is not intended for proficients but for learners," there will probably be few proficients who will not feel that even they have much to learn from such a luminous and even fascinating treatment of the subject. The idea running through the lectures, which gives the volume its distinctive mark, is the relation of dogma to its history, and the parallelism of the logical and historical development. "How dogma has shaped itself in history, what law has guided its development, and what abiding value

belongs to its products" (p. 4). The lectures raise the question whether there is a recognisable law in the progress of dogma, and what its discovery may do for us in our attitude to theology now. Having disposed at the outset of those who would exclude dogma from Christianity altogether; and of others, such as Harnack, who regard the course which dogma has taken as a departure from the original idea of Christianity; and, having answered those who allege that criticism has so subverted the foundations of historical religion as to make dogma impossible, by saying that the same assertion would dispose of the entire Christian faith-Dr. Orr proceeds to define dogma as a synonym for "those formulations of Christian doctrine which have obtained authoritative recognition in wide sections of the Church and are embodied in historical creeds" (p. 12). Then he unfolds the purpose of his discussion, which is to show that the logical and historical order in the progress of dogma are coincident -that there is a singular parallel between the historical course of dogma, on the one hand, and the scientific order of the textbooks on dogmatics, on the other. "The temporal and the logical order correspond" (p. 21). The textbooks follow an almost invariable order, beginning with what may be called Theological Prolegomena, passing then to Theology proper, Christology, Soteriology, the Application of Redemption, and Eschatology. "If now, planting yourself at the close of the Apostolic age, you cast your eye down the course of the succeeding centuries, you find, taking as an easy guide the great historical controversies of the Church, that what you have is simply the projection of this logical system on a vast temporal screen" (p. 22). This coincidence forces the conclusion that there is a law of development underlying the arrangement, and that the law of these two developments—the logical and the historical—is the same. The textbooks place the doctrines in the logical order of dependence—the one forming the presupposition of the other. History reveals their development in the same sequence, and this is not merely a coincidence, but is due to the same law underlying both. "The simpler precedes the more complex:

fundamental doctrines those which need the former as their basis: problems in the order in which they naturally and inevitably rise in the evolution of thought" (p. 30). Dr. Orr contends that we thus obtain such a test of the value of theological doctrines as becomes a valuable criterion by which fresh developments may be tried. That, put in a sentence or two, is the task essayed by Dr. Orr, and in the performance of which he reviews the great theological periods of Church history. Dogma tested by history, for the history of dogma is the judgment of dogma, just as the history of the world is the judgment of the world. Doctrine an evolution, in which the system of doctrine embodied in the great Church creeds represents "the survival of the fittest," for a true evolution is organic, is a continuation of the developments of the past, not a reversal of them. That is the line taken in the lectures, with, as the lecturer contends, "the result that. instead of inextricable confusion in history, we see the creation of an organism: instead of fatuity and error, the gradual evolution and vindication of a system of truth " (p. 30).

In fulfilment of this plan there is passed under review, first, the controversy with Paganism and Gnosticism, out of which were evolved those general truths which form the early Christian Apologetic. Dr. Orr thinks that sufficient justice has not been done to Justin's apology, much of which he regards as by no means antiquated. The account of Origen against Celsus is lucid and interesting, and the general position taken by the lecturer is that, alike on its defensive, aggressive, and positive sides, the Christian Apology was able and admirable. There is, in passing, an effective refutation of Harnack's view that the apologists had no grasp of the distinctive nature of Christianity. It is granted that their habits of thought gave a strongly philosophical cast to their writings, and that they looked on truth with the apologist's eye; but Harnack's assertion that, to the apologists, "Christianity is a system of natural religion with supernatural sanctions," is neither warranted by the writings of the apologists, nor consistent with many of the admissions of Harnack himself. With equal success, in his fine Vol. XII.-No. 3.

treatment of Gnosticism and its effects on the formulation of doctrine, does Professor Orr dispose of the charge of "Hellenising" Christianity, a strange task certainly for fathers to whom Greek philosophy was the parent of all heresy! The evolution of a Christian philosophy of the world from the conflict with Gnosticism is not to be dismissed as a mere process of Hellenising, for it was really in the line of sound development.

Then follow the various controversies of the third and fourth centuries-the Monarchian, Arian and Macedonianin the course of which the Church came to its theology proper, its doctrine of God. Here Dr. Orr combats Harnack's contention that the writings of this period exhibit two Christological types, the Adoptionist and the Pneumatic, by showing that the former type is discovered by Harnack in the Shepherd of Hermas only, and that it is by no means clear that even Hermas teaches a purely Adoptionist view; and that what Harnack so describes is really the view of Paul of Samosata, that while in nature only man, Christ is raised to an honorary Godhead through the working of a divine power within Him. "This accords with a tendency quite prevalent in recent theology (that of Lipsius, Beyschlag, and many of the Ritschlians) to assign to Christ the predicate 'Godhead,' while not really recognising in Him more than man. . . . Godhead is not a thing that can begin in time, or be conferred as a degree of honour on any created being. 'This view, therefore, under all its disguises, remains a unitarian one" (p. 102). The discussion of the Arian dispute is very thorough, and goes to show that the creatureship of the Son being admitted, Arianism could run only one logical course: "and the logical stages are, as usual, virtually also the historical ones". The great task of Athanasius was "to rescue the Christian idea of God from influences derived from Greek philosophy which threatened to subvert it " (p. 123).

The chapter on the Augustinian and Pelagian controversy is specially good, and it is clearly shown that there were in Augustine two lines of teaching which are irreconcileable, his churchly and his doctrinal side, on the former of which he is

a Catholic, on the latter a Protestant; though even as a Protestant he extended the meaning of "justification to include, not merely the free forgiveness of sins, but the inward change which he supposes to take place in baptism" (p. 143). Baptism, as Augustine taught it, is also shown to run across his theory of predestination, and to confuse it. Always and everywhere, however, predestination is shown to have been rightly connected by Augustine with salvation. "It is the salvation of the believer viewed, if we may so say, sub specie æternitatis" (p. 152). Yet it is not easy, Dr. Orr confesses, to free the Augustinian view of predestination from the charge that it conflicts with the love, or rather, the Fatherhood of God. It is open to this charge, because he regarded the subject too exclusively in relation to the individual salvation, and not sufficiently in connection with an organic view of the divine purpose in its relation to the world and history.

A long discussion follows of the Christological controversies—the most unlovely in the history of the Church—and the general criticism is offered that the union between the divine and human in Christ which was postulated was, in each case, too external, "and probably the chief gain of our modern way of thinking on Christological questions is that it transcends this older dualism, and starts rather from the affinity of the divine and human, recognising a God-related element in human nature, as created in the Divine image, which furnishes a starting-point for the conceivability of the incarnation" (p. 176). The defect of the Chalcedonian creed is that "it states the factors for us, but gives us no help to a positive solution of the problem they involve" (p. 193).

Soteriology in the doctrines of Anselm, Abelard and Bernard is next reviewed, the special contribution of Bernard being "the idea of the organic relation of Christ and His people as explaining how the satisfaction of one should avail for many" (p. 231). The endurance by Christ of the penal consequences of transgression is the specific note in Aquinas: and it is shown that with the Reformation came the clearer light shed upon the way of salvation by the doctrine of

justification. It is noted also that the Reformers one and all, in Ritschl's words, "estimated the atoning work of Christ by reference to that justice of God which finds its expression in the eternal law". This is what lifts the subject out of the sphere of private rights which is the defect of the Anselmic doctrine. In asserting that the doctrine of the Reformers is "forensic," Dr. Orr wisely remarks that this element is necessary to any theory of the atonement which does justice to Scripture and conscience, and is demanded even by God's love and Fatherhood: for the love of God must manifest itself in reigning through, not in annulling righteousness.

As every doctrine has its hour in the historical development, the period of the Reformation saw the Church formulating the doctrine of the Application of Redemption. The Reformation principle of justification was rooted in the "religious self-estimate," as Ritschl calls it, of godly men, and, in that respect, stood in an unbroken relation to the past. "It was in its essence no new commandment which the Reformers taught, but an old commandment which the Church had from the beginning" (p. 254). Premising that "the Reformation creeds do give, and give practically for the first time a survey of Christian doctrine in all its great articles" (p. 282), the lecturer deals with the theological developments which have taken place on the basis of these Reformation creeds; and, while it does not fall to him to defend Calvinism from the shallow and often ignorant criticisms that are sometimes passed on it, much is done, and well done, in showing the true bearings of Calvin's teaching; though it is difficult to see why this criticism was not brought into closer connexion with the exposition of Augustinianism, with which it is vitally related. Dr. Orr frankly admits that Calvin errs in placing his root idea of God in sovereign will rather than in love: and that Calvin's doctrine of election "is not a conception in which the Christian mind can finally rest" (p. 293). Neither Augustine nor Calvin, in Professor Orr's judgment, took a sufficiently organic view of the divine purpose.

The transition to modern theology is made in a very interesting statement of philosophical thought from Descartes, through Kant, to Hegel. Kant's service to theology, in his vindication of the place of the practical reason and of teleology, is noted, and there is constant reference to the derivation from Kantian principles of the positive religious conceptions of the Ritschlian school. The colour given to modern theology by evolution and socialism is discussed; and the modern call for a new Apologetic, which recognises nature as having a moral end, is admitted as valid. The new Apologetic must seek to "grasp Christianity in its widest relations—as a religion, in its connexion with the general philosophy of religion: as historical, in its place and context as one of the great historical religions: as a religion of the Kingdom of God, in its relations with social strivings and the general world-end of Providence" (p. 320). This will afford a corrective to the demand of Ritschlianism that faith must be divorced from reason, and will show that Christian apologetic can never be satisfactorily separated from the positive exhibition of the Christian system. "If we are to defend Christianity, we must define what we are to defend. Christianity is its own best apology" (p. 322). The modern tendency to a doctrine of God which recognises the truth of His immanence—which connects itself with the idea of the divine Fatherhood-which has practically superseded federalism with the category of the Kingdom-is welcomed in the closing lecture. And "the trend of the higher philosophy, in laying stress on the dignity of man as rational, selfconscious spirit, and on his kindredness to the divine" (p. 327), is fully recognised as a necessary corrective to the tendency in older speculation to hold God and man too far apart. The limits of the application of evolution to theology, which in the main Dr. Orr regards as inevitable, are defined in the sentence: "evolution does not explain origins". The volume concludes with some wise and fruitful discussion of the place which Christology and Eschatology have come to occupy in modern thinking. The gain to Christology from modern ways of treating it is "that whereas the old Church

doctrine approached the subject of Christology predominantly from the side of the opposite predicates of the two natures, modern theology approaches it from the side of the receptiveness of humanity for the divine". "It will not be denied that the historical, scientific spirit of modern times has done much to rectify one-sidedness, and to give us an impression of the human Christ, such as the world has never possessed since the days of the first generation of believers" (pp. 334, 335). He takes an eclectic view of modern speculations on the atonement, asserting that "those who hold most strictly by the judicial view may find in them elements of assistance" (p. 340). And, like Canon Moberly, he welcomes the breaking down, by various forces, of individualism, as a way to the wiser statement of the truth of vicarious suffering. "Substitution will be interpreted through representation, the old idea of the Head suffering for the members" (p. 344). And, again in line with Moberly, he pays a tribute to McLeod Campbell's view of representative confession as an aspect of the truth on this subject which has yet to come to its own. There is no dogmatic pronouncement on the subject of Eschatology-Dr. Orr evidently feeling, with many, that a merciful uncertainty is a wise reaction from over-dogmatism on such a theme.

From this outline of the volume it will be seen that the history of dogma has been treated once more by a competent hand. And, despite the introductory chapter in which Dr. Orr lays down the law of the progress of doctrinal development, which throughout he seeks to discover, probably the chief value of the book is just that it is a history of dogma, written in view of everything that has recently been said on the subject. For the knowledge which the lectures suggest is worthy of the lecturer. Nothing escapes his observant eye. And the spirit in which modern restatements of theology are treated is admirable. It is open to doubt, when one has finished the volume, whether the claim made at the outset, that the logical and historical order coincide, has been made out: or whether it is even important that it should be. That the order in a textbook of dogmatic should coincide with

the order in which doctrines have been formulated historically, is not a convincing proof of a law of the progress of dogma. The textbooks are necessarily based on the history of dogma, as that closed practically with the Reformation. And, as Professor Orr himself points out, while the order is the prevailing, it is not the invariable one. The order was inverted by Dr. Chalmers, who began with sin as the disease for which a remedy is provided: and modern statements of dogmatic are fond of starting with the Kingdom of God as the goal of, and the key to, the divine purpose. And one is apt, as the author admits, to look with suspicion on all attempts to force history into systematic categories. Not that the faintest suggestion of a charge of manipulating history to suit his formula can be made against Professor Orr. The treatment of the historical process is eminently fair, and even judicial. But a man always, or nearly always, can prove from history what he means to prove. And surely he is rather absolute in saying that the history of dogma never returns upon itself to take up as part of its creed what it has formally, and with full consciousness, rejected at some bygone stage. In many ways Dr. Orr in his closing chapter exhibits this very return of dogma upon itself, in the development alike of phases of theology and Christology, which, in the formative periods of these doctrines were, if not rejected, certainly ignored. One cannot help looking charily on categories used as Baur and Hegel used theirs. But the question whether Dr. Orr has succeeded in quite making good that idea which colours these lectures, and may be said to be their special aim, in no way detracts from the value of a course of lectures which, for literary merit, exhaustive discussion of an important subject, and sane criticism, not to speak of their real interest, leaves nothing to be desired.

DAVID PURVES.

Geschichte des Jüdischen Volkes im Zeitalter Jesu Christi.

Von Emil Schürer. 3te und 4te Auflage. Erster Band: Einleitung und Politische Geschichte. Leipzig: Hinrichs, 1901. 8vo, pp. vii. + 780. Price M.18.

This new edition of the first part of Schürer's well-known work appears just three years after the third edition of the second part, and the text of the whole work is complete in its new form. The indices to the whole are to appear shortly. In the meantime the former indices will serve as a general guide, for the pages of the older edition are inserted in the new.

The new matter is the great feature of this edition, the arrangement of the work remaining unchanged. Most of the additions will be found in the notes, with one or two interesting exceptions. They increase the bulk of the book by about 127 pages; thirty-seven of these being in the "Quellen," and ninety in the "Politische Geschichte".

As the author points out in his preface, some of the most striking additions are due to the recent finds of papyri in Egypt and the work done on these by scholars. In place of the dozen lines, which on page 53 of the second edition discuss the solitary papyrus there mentioned, we now have five pages given to an account of several. Five of these papyri have a curious family likeness, and all seem to refer to persecutions of the Jews in Alexandria. Two fragments relate the story of a conference in the time of Trajan—or possibly Hadrian; two others report a similar conference under Claudius; and the fifth a conversation between a certain Appian and one of the Antonines, either Marcus Aurelius or Commodus. The literary connexion of these fragments is difficult to determine. Their resemblance to one another in form and content is marked, yet they come from different

places, refer to events separated in time, and differ palæographically. They afford, however, still further evidence of the position of the Jews in Alexandria during this period.

In the section dealing with the taxing of Quirinius, Schürer makes good use of the discoveries of Egyptian ἀπογραφαί. We learn that in Egypt there were two kinds of such lists. Every fourteen years each householder had to hand in a list of all the inhabitants of his house for the past year. (2) Every year each owner had to give a written account of his moveable possessions for the current year. How far this new information is of value for a knowledge of taxing in Syria is discussed by Schürer. The rest of this book is characterised by the author's undaunted attempt to take notice of all the literature of any value that has appeared in any part of his large field. In the matter of chronology, for example, he has been converted by Niese to a new position as to the dates of the Seleucid period. He now prefers to follow the dates given by Eusebius rather than those of Porphyry which he had previously adopted. A comparative table of the two sets of dates has been added, and with the following note adds much to the reader's ease in understanding the position.

In the section dealing with the history of the Maccabæan period Niese's work "Kritik der beiden Makkabäerbücher" has led to a fuller discussion of many points (e.g., in notes 42 and 58). Schürer however still finds himself unable to acknowledge the source of 2 Macc. (Jason of Cyrene) as more trustworthy than I Macc. Niese's view is that I Macc. is only a working over of Jason in the interest of the Maccabæan dynasty.

In the history of Herod the Great, the chronology remains unchanged, but in a long note Schürer discusses and opposes the view of Kromayer that Antony's gift to Cleopatra of the Phœnician coast should be assigned to the year 36 rather than to 34.

English scholarship is not ignored in this edition, but Professor Ramsay has not converted the author on the subject of the identity of the lands of Ituræa and Trachonitis. Professor G. A. Smith is quoted against him and the literature

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of the dispute is mentioned. The breadth of the author's reading is especially manifest in the supplement on the Nabatæan kings. Here not only are the Nabatæan inscriptions fully treated, but the work of Dussaud and Macler on the inscriptions of Safa, which only appeared late last year, is used.

The above are only a few instances, taken almost at random, of what one can find in this stimulating book. Surely it is time now to have a new English translation of the work. The one we have is not as exact as one could wish, and is not sufficiently up to date. It is scarcely likely that the structure of the work will be changed in future editions, and further additions might be published in a supplemental volume, which could be consulted by those who wished to look up any particular detail.

G. W. THATCHER.

The Agape and the Eucharist in the Early Church.

By J. F. Keating, D.D., Canon and Chancellor, etc., and Principal, etc., Scottish Episcopal Church. London: Methuen & Co. Cr. 8vo, pp. 207. Price 3s. 6d.

A SMALL hand-telescope of higher power may stand as the type of book for which we are indebted as above to Dr. Keating. It concentrates effort on a compact area, and searches the field for all specks of evidence of every magnitude and for every filmy nebula of doubt which it contains. Looked at broadly, the question antecedently arises, Could any religion which started into existence in the period from B.C. 100 to A.D. 200 have failed to include some such institution as the Agape? To this the answer with overwhelming probability is negative. But the fact of a common feature being thus found to pervade three diverse religions, viz., heathen-Greek, Jewish and Christian, does not imply that even the latest of them in date of origin derived it from either of the other two, although its collateral existence in all may have had a modifying influence as regards form. Thus the diverse ritual, so to speak, of the Agape, viewed as a Christian institution, may be explained, e.g., at Corinth (as in I Cor. xi.) by the juxtaposition of Hellenic influence, or in the Διδαγή, by the Judaistic affinities perceptible in the treatise itself. As regards the former case our author cites (Appendix, p. 177) Neander's remark, that "There existed among the Greeks an ancient custom of holding entertainments at which each one brought his food with him and consumed it alone. The Agapæ in the Corinthian Church were conducted on the plan of this ancient custom, although the peculiar object of the institution was so different," etc. As regards the second case, the author remarks (p. 32) that the Διδαγή "is now generally believed to be a strongly Judaising document ". This belief is probably an overstrain; but the presence of the affinities noticed above is clear, and suffices to account for the tendency which colours the rules given in Διδαχή, ί. It is curious that neither by the author nor by any of the

numerous authorities whom he quotes is any influence on the genesis of the Agape ascribed to our Saviour's emphatic direction in St. Luke xiv. 12 ff., especially v. 13, "When thou makest a feast, call the poor, etc. For they cannot recompense thee;" a precept which suggests the Agape in its eleemosynary aspect—that in which the Christian apologists prefer to present it, as a bond of brotherhood between rich and poor. The closest approximation, however, to the Agape is found in the Jewish sects of the Therapeutæ and the Essenes. Any converts to Christianity from these bodies would doubtless bring their own influence with them. This accounts for the resemblance traceable between what we learn from Philo and Josephus concerning the festal practices of these sects (quoted pp. 25-31), and the notices of the Agape derived especially from Tertullian, with which Dr. Keating co-ordinates them (pp. 29, 30). The Saviour's rule above quoted is to the individual feast-giver, and stands in direct parentage to the form which we find the Agape assumed in a large array of "Church ordinances," especially in the third and following centuries (see Dr. Keating's 4th chapter). There the duties of the guests towards their host (e.g., p. 115, "Let the bishop pray over the guests and him who has invited them") form a leading topic of regulation. The skilful industry of co-ordination between these various authorities, such as the Apostolic Constitutions, the Canons of Hippolytus, the "Testament of our Lord," the Egyptian Church Order and the remains of Egyptian Canons, will impress the reader with a sense of editorial aptitude, and will unfold a rich array of sources unsuspected by the early research of Cave and Bingham.

Bingham indeed was able to do little beyond sketching the subject in rather rough outline. He notes the way in which the Agape and the Eucharist were involved in each other, and the different periods in which the former preceded, then the latter; the final separation of the two, the exclusion of the Agape from the Church building, and finally its canonical extinction in the seventh century. It had, however, its survivals in various connexions, e.g., in marriage and funeral feasts, in commemoration of departed saints, in the panis benedictus still distributed in Western Churches, and the evidoviau of the Eastern. We may doubt, indeed, whether the "Church Ales" of our mediæval ancestors had not an "underground" connexion with it.

In Appendix II. a good sketch is given of "the Roman legislation on collegia and sodalicia" in relation to the Agape from the "Twelve Tables" downwards. A number of these were what we should now class as "Trades Unions". They were colourably beneficial or religious institutions, capable of plausibly cloaking occult movements against the authorities. The suspicious attitude of authority towards them in the earlier period is easily accounted for by the feebleness of police; which also measures the extreme severity of penalties by which their suppression was enforced. Our author (p. 4) regards the "religious confraternities" as "more ancient than the trade or other secular corporations". 1 One of the oldest Roman inscriptions extant is the Senatus Consultum de Bacchanalibus, repressive of some improprieties or even enormities, believed to have become current and popular through an agency of female clubs about A. U. C. 566. At the same time some of the older "religious confraternities," e.g., the Fratres Arvales, Salii, etc., were under the direct patronage of the early Roman republic. Accordingly this class was the first to escape from repression when that became the rule. "Religionis causa coire non prohibentur" is a passage from the Digest given on p. 183, of uncertain date of origin. same passage recognises collegia tenuiorum as indulged. The Roman Government took over Greece by conquest, recognised gradually its higher civilization, and finding such fraternities

¹This seems questionable: perhaps the fact is that they attracted the repressive efforts of authority earlier.

(έταιρίαι) everywhere, was tolerant of them as a custom racy of the soil. Hence inscriptions extant give us (p. 105) a "collegium symphoniacorum," a "collegium dendrophorum" and a "collegium neon . . ." (νέων? Cf. the Collegia Juvenum on p. 187). Trajan, however, seems to have set his face against the growing laxity. He was the one type under the earlier Empire of a military princeps. No doubt he did not wish during campaigns on the Danube to be troubled with organisations which might veil sedition in Bithynia. This brings us to his edict of repression, and to Pliny's famous letterground in direct contact with the Christian Agape, but ground lately trodden and retrodden by Dr. Armitage Robinson, Liebenam, Professor Ramsay, Mr. Hardy, and others. For the net result of their opinions we must refer the reader to Appendix II. of the volume itself,1 one to be welcomed by all who have a student's eye for Christian antiquity. Only a few minor points seem open to animadversion,

e.g., the note on p. 47 regards as open to "obvious objection" a rendering of St. Paul's words, οὔκ ἐστι κυριακὸν δεῦπνον φαγείν (I Cor. xi.), which on p. 173 " seems to harmonise best with the context". And on pp. 55, 56 the statements concerning "the later meeting" of the Christian body in Bithynia and "the meeting in question" (with a comparison of Tertullian's phrase, cited, antelucanis temporibus) do not seem strictly to cohere. But these are surface blemishes only.

HENRY HAYMAN.

1 See also p. 56, note 3.

The Marrow of Modern Divinity.

In two parts. Edited with Introduction, Notes, and an Appendix, Biographical and Bibliographical, by C. G. M'Crie, D.D. Glasgow: David Bryce & Son, 1902. 8vo, pp. xxxii. + 390. Price 5s. net.

One is glad to have at last a worthy edition of the Marrow. Dr. M'Crie has rendered a great service to all who are interested in the history of Scottish theology. It may seem ungrateful to regret that he has not done more. The theology of the Marrow has never been adequately expounded; and no one is more fitted to interpret that theology than Dr. M'Crie. By knowledge, by sympathy, and by hereditary right, he is amply qualified to do a work which must be done if the history of Scottish theology is not to remain the unknown land which in our day it has become.

The Marrow of Modern Divinity, a small and badly printed octavo, was published by G. Calvert, at the sign of "The Black Spread Eagle, neer Pauls," in May, 1645. It was offered as an irenicon, discriminating between Legalism and Antinomianism, and pointing out "the middle path, which is Jesus Christ, received truly and walked in answerably". The first edition of the Marrow was quickly sold out, and in the following year a new and greatly enlarged edition was published. In 1649 the second part of the Marrow of Modern Divinity appeared. This addition was a detailed exposition of the Ten Commandments, expressing with great fulness the views of the author on the moral requirements of the Gospel. One edition followed another in quick succession, each "revised and corrected by the author," until, in 1650. the seventh impression was issued. In that year, apparently, the author died.

Dr. M'Crie's edition is based upon these earlier editions. Of these the seventh is the most accurate, and is really our authority for the text.

After the death of the author the Marrow was not again printed until 1668: that issue is the basis of the famous edition of 1718. In 1699 a new revision was executed by one whose name is withheld, but whose acquaintance with the Neonomian Controversy, then raging, appears to have been most intimate. It was brought out by Isaac Chauncy's publisher. The obnoxious phrases were omitted, uncouth sayings were pruned, and those passages which had been most vehemently objected to were "all smoothed according to the stile of the Westminster Confession". Hog of Carnock did not know of this edition in 1718. But there were some who thought that if he had made use of it, instead of the reprint of 1668, the Marrow Controversy might have been avoided. A careful study of the influence of the Marrow upon the Neonomian Controversy will throw light on some dark places in the later controversies which arose in Scotland.

In all the impressions which were issued during his life. the author of the Marrow, modestly willing to conceal his name, appended to the title merely the initial letters E. F. Samuel Prettie, a divine whose "orthodoxness" was vouched for by the Westminster Assembly of Divines, and who, in turn, was one of those who added their testimony to the Marrow in 1646, gives us a punning clue to the identity of E. F. "God," he says, "hath endewed his Fisher with the net of a trying understanding". During his lifetime the author remained unknown except within a narrow circle. Between the years 1646 and 1654 several writers refer to the Marrow as if it were virtually an anonymous book. Later it was reported to Richard Baxter that the author was Edward Fisher, a barber in London. On the other hand, Anthony à Wood identifies the author of the Marrow with Edward Fisher of Mickleton in Gloucestershire, an Oxford graduate, and a ripe scholar. This identification of Wood's was received for a time without question, but is now utterly exploded. Dr. M'Crie does not speak as firmly on this point as the evidence seems to require.

The Marrow of Modern Divinity is a catena of quotations from the Reformers and early Puritans, pieced out with

original reflections and constructed in the form of a lengthened colloquy. In the first part alone there are more than three hundred citations drawn from ninety-one volumes, the work of fifty-four authors—German, French, Swiss, Italian, and English Reformers; along with Episcopalian, Presbyterian, Independent, Baptist, and "Sectarian" divines of the Puritan age. The books made use of are all in English, and their dates range from 1550 to 1645. Some of them are now very scarce. One of them—The Prayer and Perfection of a Christian in his Pilgrimage, by Master Gray—I have not been able to find. It was printed in London, in 1638, and was probably a mere brochure. It is of this Master Gray that Bakewell, a somewhat truculent writer, says that, when he became antinomian in his principles, "the Lord, in mercy to His church, smote him that he died".

In his Appendix Dr. M'Crie gives much interesting information regarding those authors of whom Fisher made spoil; but the lists are not complete. There are also several mistaken identifications, as, for example, John Forbes of Middelburgh has to give place to Forbes of Corse, Edward Vaughan of Stretton Leafield to Richard Vaughan, and Nicholas Gibbens to John Gibbon.

Not only are the citations in the Marrow very numerous, but it is in them that the distinctive "Marrow Theology" is to be found. Principal Hadow waged war not with E. F., "barber and bookseller in the Old Baily," as we suppose him to have been, but with Ezekiel Culverwell, John Rogers, John Preston, and Martin Luther. Dr. M'Crie has done us the great service of verifying many of these citations, and of separating them from the matrix in which they inhere, by quotation marks. Should a new impression of this edition be called for—and we trust it will—it would be of much consequence that this should be done with all. In very many cases an ordinary reader cannot detect the beginning or the end of the fragment extracted from an earlier writer. Occasionally it extends to a mere sentence or phrase; sometimes it covers more than half a page.

DAVID M. M'INTYRE.

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The Pastoral Epistles.

A New Translation with Introduction, Commentary, and Appendix. By Rev. J. P. Lilley, M.A., Arbroath. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1901. Pp. vii. + 255. Price 2s. 6d.

Momenta of Life. •

Essays, Ethical, Historical and Religious, by Rev. James Lindsay, D.D., of St. Andrew's Parish Church, Kilmarnock. London: Elliot Stock, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 146. Price 5s.

MR. LILLEY'S volume on the Pastoral Epistles forms one of the excellent series of handbooks intended for theological students, and is a valuable and careful contribution. Both in the Introduction and the Appendix, the author gives evidence of thorough acquaintance with the extensive literature on the subject, and as the result of his study and investigation he writes in full agreement with the traditional view of the authorship and value of these Epistles. The general Introduction, which extends to twelve sections, gives a clear and complete survey of opinion, ancient and modern, on the genuineness and substance of this group of Epistles, and of the various facts and inferences, drawn from Paul's history and from the writings themselves, that determine the keenly debated questions of date and authorship. Special notice is taken of Schleiermacher's influence in disturbing the traditional view of the integrity of the Epistles, and in suggesting that parts at least were of later compilation. Baur's scientific criticism is referred to as giving the next great impulse to anti-traditional views and to the theory of late composition. Baur held that the author was an adherent of Pauline Christianity who wrote about the middle of the second century and in opposition to the Gnostic heresy that was then active and threatening. Notwithstanding Baur's objections, and recent modifications of his views by opponents of the authenticity of these Letters, Mr. Lilley stoutly defends the traditional position, and argues that all three Epistles were written after Paul's first imprisonment, and belong to the closing stage of the apostle's life (A.D. 66-67). maintained that the so-called rigid and developed church organisation reflected in the Epistles, and the particular errors controverted, are not incompatible with an early date, and that changes in theological teaching and literary style were naturally called for in altered circumstances. Holtzmann's objection to the Pauline authorship on the ground of style, and in view of the peculiarity that these Epistles contain no fewer than 171 "hapaxlegomena," is met by the consideration that Paul's mind was intensely active and versatile, and that like Carlyle he "seems to have retained the power of issuing fresh verbal coinage up to the close of his career".

The second part of the Introduction deals with the characters and contents of each Epistle, and this is followed by the author's translation and by a full and detailed commentary. The latter is, we think, exhaustively and well done and will repay study. The Appendix is of more than usual interest and, along with other topics, discusses more fully some of the points raised in the Introduction. The section on "Paul's Doctrine of Inspiration" (2 Tim. iii. 16) is valuable for its correction of the extreme and literal view adopted by theologians of the seventeenth century, and in America, who have confounded inspiration with "inerrancy". Mr. Lilley, in agreement with Dr. W. Robertson Smith, whose views he recalls, wisely admits that "the Scriptures are not necessarily flawless in mere matters of detail," and that "infallibility does not depend on mere formal accuracy". The author closes this able and scholarly handbook with a list of the chief works on these epistles, to which should now be added Dr. R. F. Horton's volume in The Century Bible. (On p. 39, second line, "initiative" is an obvious misprint.)

The essays which are here gathered together under the not very happy title, Momenta of Life, have appeared in different magazines and bear witness to the author's wide reading and independent thinking in the fields of ethics, philosophy and Christian theology. Indeed the number of academic and honorary degrees and the variety of offices as "Lecturer" and "Examiner," etc., held by Dr. Lindsay, and detailed in eight lines of the title page, remind us somewhat of the long names and titles of honour displayed by the Egyptian and Assyrian Kings, and prepare us to expect the amount of learning and the familiarity with philosophical and theological subjects that are shown in this small but suggestive volume. Of the seven essays which form the collection the first two trace the development of ethical philosophy and of Christian ethics. This development is viewed not in relation to the cultivation of particular virtues but in the deepening of the ethical consciousness, in the firmer grasp of first principles, and the clearer recognition of the metaphysical and theistic implications which lie at the root of morality. It is contended that ethical philosophy, if regarded as a purely natural science, lacks its root and foundation and is no better than a torso. In the sphere of Christian ethics, it is claimed that progress is still more observable. The new and all-embracing principle that distinguishes Christian ethics is Love. God appears as the perfect Good, and Jesus Christ as the perfect type or pattern realising this ethical ideal and end-"the new ethics was introduced when Christ bade men be perfect even as their Father in Heaven is perfect" (p. 53). Dr. Lindsay is earnest in emphasising the worth of the individual moral personality and in maintaining that Immortality, which is the summit of moral aspiration, must be personal and real. "No immortality of the positivist or of the materialist can satisfy our ethical ideals. We are, in fact, weary of sham immortalities, and crave that which is real or none. That of the pantheist cannot be a satisfying immortality, for personality has no justice at his hands" (p. 57). The importance of man's gift of individuality and personality

is emphasised also in the fourth essay on the Reformation or the Protestant assertion of liberty and revolt against blind authority; and, again, in the chapter on "Man and the Cosmos," where man is affirmed to be the crown and key of creation. Perhaps Dr. Lindsay's insistence on the reality of personality, and the importance of ethical individuality as the basis of moral action, freedom and immortality, is the deepest note and the most valuable feature of these essays. The chapters (iii. and v.) on Schleiermacher and Origen are interesting and sympathetic. Full recognition is made of Schleiermacher's extraordinary influence in renewing theology, but his defective hold on the Divine Personality, the risen Redeemer, personal immortality, and his imperfect view of the moral sense and sin, are equally admitted. Like some recent writers, Dr. Lindsay has been drawn to the study of Origen, and his chapter on this "ancient modern," like that on Schleiermacher, is filled with a glow of appreciation and of sympathy with the subject which makes these two essays lighter and more readable. Something might have been said on Origen's work as an expositor of the Scriptures and on his principles of interpretation. The last of the essays is a discriminating paper on "Mysticism," in which a Ritschlian representative comes in for criticism. "Herrmann is for ever coming to the knowledge of God but never succeeds, for Christ is for him no real way to the Father" (p. 144). This is not comforting nor quite fair to Herrmann. We conclude by wishing that Dr. Lindsay had written, especially in the two opening essays, with more regard to what he terms (p. 54) "the scientific interest of clearness". For after all, as Mr. Leslie Stephen has said, it is a philosopher's art to make his language intelligible to the outside world.

W. M. RANKIN.

Spiritual Religion.

(The Fernley Lecture for 1901.)

By John G. Tasker, Handsworth College. London: C. H. Kelly. 1901. Demy 8vo, pp. xi. + 179. Price 3s.

Muhammad and His Power.

By P. De Lacy Johnstone, M.A. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark. (The World's Epoch-Makers.) 8vo, pp. xviii. + 238. Price 3s.

The Medici and the Italian Renaissance.

By Oliphant Smeaton, M.A. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark. (The World's Epoch-Makers.) 8vo, pp. x. + 286. Price 3s.

The Fernley Lecture for 1901 is a most readable book. We could not name a better summary of the freshest thought on the Possibility and Nature of Spiritual Religion. Professor Tasker has thoroughly mastered recent speculation on the subject, and from theologians, philosophers, and poets, he has gathered much valuable material. This he sifts and criticises so deftly and gives his own opinions so lucidly, that even on this abstruse subject the simplest may run and read. Professor Tasker's volume may worthily stand alongside Mr. T. G. Selby's Theology of Modern Fiction or Mr. Watkinson's Influence of Scepticism on Character in the same series.

The author shows how the religion and ideals of an age express themselves, and then proves from material science, from physiology, and from psychology that man is a "religious animal". He then turns to the Divine side and argues that God must be a Personal Spirit, and that communion between

God and man is not impossible. In nature, and in history, God has revealed Himself, but the Supreme Revelation was in Jesus Christ. To-day this revelation is manifested to men by the ministry of the Holy Ghost, the fellowship of the Church, and the co-operation of the believer in works of holiness. The book is full of good matter patly expressed: but pp. 137-140, where Christian experience and its relation to Holy Scripture is discussed, and pp. 156-160, where there is an excellent statement of the doctrine of the Lord's Supper, are especially deserving of notice.

In Muhammad and his Power Mr. Johnstone sketches the state of Arabia in "the days of ignorance" before Muhammad's time. He then recounts the birth and life of the prophet, and traces the rise and progress of the Muslim Empire till the defeat and death of Husain at Karbala in A.D. 680. There is an interesting account of the composition, character, and moral value of the Ouran, and a short account of the origin of the Shia and Sunni Schism among Muhammadans. Mr. Johnstone follows the recognised authorities with commendable accuracy, but small slips occur here and there. On page 30 "Arsacid" should be Sassanid. The Arsacidæ were kings of Parthia, the Persian rulers were Sassanidæ. Then on page 108 Juwairiva is correctly called "widow" of the slain chief of the Bani Mustaliq, but on page 110 she is called his "daughter". These small points, however, do not impair the value of an excellent handbook on the first fifty years of Islam.

Mr. Smeaton in *The Medici and the Italian Renaissance* has made every student of Italian history and literature his debtor. The Renaissance was certainly an epoch, and no family did more to propagate and extend the influences that sprang from the new learning than the Medicis of Florence. Mr. Smeaton has a graceful pen, and his style is a model for writers of history. He has laid the standard authorities like

Roscoe, Symonds, and Von Reumont under contribution, but he has supplemented those by research in many quarters. Accordingly he has given us a history of Florence in her palmiest days: a biography of the subtle Cosimo and the splendid Lorenzo: a picture of popes and cardinals who were humanists and politicians if not Christians, and he has sketched an account of an age torn by continual wars, and seething with spites, ambitions and intrigues. The estimate of Lorenzo's influence on the Renaissance, and of his patronage of arts and letters strikes us as especially valuable; while the brief accounts of the leading scholars which the Medici gathered around them will make frequent consultation of this volume indispensable.

JOSEPH TRAILL.

Gereformeerde Dogmatiek.

Door Dr. H. Bavinck. Derde Deel, 1898; Vierde Deel, 1901. Kampen: J. H. Bos.

It is matter for regret that this important work, the first and second volumes of which were noticed in this Review,1 should be so bulky and should be in Dutch, for thereby many are excluded from a knowledge of it who would assuredly both consult and value it if it were more accessible. Its author, Professor Bavinck, is well known to those interested in the state of parties and theology in Holland as the scholarly representative of the (Free) Christian Reformed Church, now united (since 1892) with the body of dissentients from the National Church headed by Dr. Kuyper, at its theological institution at Kampen. This Gereformeerde Dogmatiek shows, what Dr. Bavinck's other writings evince, that his learning, gifts of thought, and power of doctrinal exposition place him in the front rank of modern dogmatic writers. His standpoint, like that of the Church of which he is an ornament, is believing and Calvinistic, even to the extent, one may feel, of ultra-orthodoxy. Yet one cannot peruse his volumes without perceiving that in every other respect he is a thoroughly modern man. His grasp of his subject is immense, and his acquaintance with the history of systems, with earlier and modern philosophy, and with the literature of theology in all its departments, down to the newest English and Scotch work, is well-nigh exhaustive. To these stores of knowledge Dr. Bavinck adds a spirit of profound faith and a faculty of logical and coherent thinking, arising from a clear hold of first principles. In its scope and completeness the present work reminds one of the days of the old theological masters, and it is certainly a sign of the times,

and evidence of a revived interest in positive dogmatics in Holland, that such a work should be found lifting its head at all. Criticism of the work in detail is not to be thought of, but it may be of interest to indicate the general character of the volumes last published. In all, the Dogmatick consists of four parts, in as many volumes. The first volume contained the principles of dogmatics, and the second made a beginning with doctrines, treating of the doctrine of God (knowledge of God, names of God, attributes, Trinity), and of the world in statu integritatis (creation, man). These two were formerly noticed. The third and fourth volumes complete the work-the former exhausting the doctrines of sin, of Christ, and of the application of salvation (benefits of redemption); and the latter dealing with the doctrines of the church, of the means of grace, and of the last things. The whole is admirably arranged, and at the close clearly summarised and indexed. It will be seen from the division that the main doctrinal interest lies in the second and third volumes. The third volume opens with a discussion on providence, which, the author points out, has two senses, that of foreseeing and that of providing. The first belongs to the doctrine of the attributes (prescience) and to the doctrine of the decrees (both under God). After creation, providence has to do, not with decrees, but with the execution of decrees, opus ad extra, continuation of creation. here also there is limitation, for while providence in the widest sense embraces all the works of God, therefore also redemption, in theology this locus is confined to the common or universal relations between God and His creation (conservatio, concursus and regimen or gubernatio). The most profound and difficult questions in God's providence are those relating to His permission and government of sin. Four elaborate chapters are devoted to this subject (origin, nature, spread and punishment of sin), in which the various theories are reviewed and the view is strongly combated that sin is a "not-yet," or necessary moment in development. It is, the author holds, a deformation, or destroying of the original form of creation, privatio actuosa, which has its origin

in the will of the creature, and not in the nature of God or of His works. The recovery from this state of sin God does not accomplish by force, but in the way of love and mercy, of right and justice, that is, by a mediator. "The doctrine of Christ is not the starting-point, but the middle-point (centre) of the whole dogmatic." The discussion of Christ's Person is followed by that of His work, and this by the consideration of the ordo salutis, and of the special blessings of regeneration, justification and sanctification. Under the work of Christ (in humiliation) the main stress is laid on its aspect of redress of the right of God; not by teaching alone, nor by force, but in the juridical sense, in the way of obedience, of sacrifice, of satisfaction. By this Christ has restored the objective, juridical relation between Christ and the world. He has said, showed, proved, that God is in the right against the world. We are not criticising, or it might be argued that there is another side—the showing of God to the world-which scarcely has justice done to it. Without following the plan further, it should be evident that we have here a magnum opus on the old dogmatic lines which, by its very massiveness, cannot be without interest and instruction to any. It is certainly, in its combination of the old with a fulness of knowledge of nearly everything that is new, a most remarkable and able work.

JAMES ORR.

Reply to Harnack.

Das Wesen des Christentums. Vorlesungen in Sommersemester 1901, vor Studirenden aller Fakultäten an der Universität Greifswald gehalten von Hermann Cremer, Dr. Theol. und der Rechte. Gütersloh: Bertelsmann. Price 3s. 9d.

THESE lectures, delivered in reply to Professor Harnack's under the same title, show that, if Professor Harnack's lectures have elicited much admiration and agreement in Germany as in other countries, they have also provoked much determined opposition. The present volume is proof enough, apart from previous works, that Professor Cremer is not unfit to enter the arena against such an antagonist. Besides the solid qualities of scholarship and expository power which we associate with the best German work, the volume is instinct with strong feeling; the pages burn with passion. The author speaks from first to last under the conviction that all is at stake. The first of the twelve lectures bears the significant title "Which Christianity?" It is no use disguising the fact that the other school proposes a new departure of the most vital kind. If one side represents Christianity, the other does not. The presence and absence of such doctrines as Incarnation, Atonement, the Trinity, is much more than a superficial difference. In the present volume the difference is several times aptly put as the difference between a Christianity in which Christ is the object and one in which he is the subject of religion, or one in which he simply teaches the Gospel as any prophet might have done and one in which he is the Gospel.

The plan of Professor Cremer's volume is original and effective, and it is most ably worked out. Instead of dealing in criticism of details, he presents the entire conception of

Christ as contained in the New Testament, and then says in effect, "Look on this picture and on that: which is the true likeness?" He nowhere travels beyond the New Testament. His book, therefore, is without the brilliant discussions of the Christianity of after ages which form so important a part of Professor Harnack's course. Here the critical difference between the two representations emerges at once. To Professor Cremer the whole of the New Testament is the source from which he gets the answer to the question, What is Christianity? To Professor Harnack the first three Gospels alone are the source. It will be noticed that in the case of the latter, "Christianity in the Apostolic age," which includes Paul and the whole of the primitive Church, is placed on a level with Christianity in the four other subsequent stages. They are valuable as showing how the Gospel was then understood, but not one of these five interpretations has more authority for us than we choose to give to it. The narrow limit to which the sources are reduced is obvious. The fourth Gospel and the Epistles are shut out. This is a more contracted Gospel even than Marcion's in the second century. Indeed whether all in the Synoptics is retained, is doubtful, or rather it is not doubtful. The miraculous in the proper sense is everywhere struck out. Professor Cremer often quotes Professor Harnack's sentence, "Jesus Christ does not belong to the Gospel". Professor Harnack writes to a German periodical to say that here a clause is omitted: the complete sentence runs, "Jesus Christ does not belong to the Gospel, as Jesus preached it ". Professor Cremer might reply, "True, but according to Harnack, this is the only Gospel. The Gospel as John or Paul preached it, is not acknowledged." Why the qualifying clause was added, is not apparent. Harnack's answer to the question, What is Christianity? is, "Christianity has three articles, The Kingdom of God and its Coming, The Fatherhood of God and the Infinite Worth of the Soul, The Better Righteousness and the Commandment of Love". Nothing else; and all these are taken from the Synoptics. Nothing from Paul or John, nothing of Christ's Deity or Atonement. "Jesus does not

belong to the Gospel" we understand to mean that Christ is not the personal object of faith, Christianity is merely the religion which Iesus taught and Himself practised, not the religion which consists in the blessings that follow from faith in His Death and Resurrection. How this is consistent with the teaching of the Synoptics and the position which Jesus assumes in them, we do not see, unless the Synoptics undergo a drastic excision; see Matt. xi. 28, x. 32, 33, 37. In the Synoptics too the Supper is instituted as a memorial of Jesus Himself. From other writings of Professor Harnack we learn that in his opinion the initial mistake of the Church was in substituting Christ and faith in Him as a person for faith in His teaching—the teaching summarised above. so, the mistake was made early, by the very earliest Church, by the men who had companied with Christ and been trained by Him. The entire Church since has done the same. Paul's and John's impressions were wrong, how can we be sure that those of writers in the nineteenth century are right? Indeed, if we understand our most recent teachers, we must distinguish even in the Synoptics between Christ's teaching and the report of the teaching by the evangelists. How are we to do this? We might go behind the Synoptics, if other sources of information were open to us. But where are they? Such speculations would land us in universal historical scepticism. We ought then to distinguish in the same way in Thucydides and Livy. That is, we ought to correct and excise and transform according to our own sweet will. And yet arbitrary dogmatism is a monopoly of orthodox theologians! If the New Testament is to be minimised and Christ's position transformed in the way proposed, it is not only the hymnology of the Church that must be revolutionised, but the entire thought and faith of Christendom in relation to Christ.

The impression given by many historians of dogma is that the ideas of incarnation and redemption are creations or fictions of later thought. Nothing can be farther from fact. Particular embodiments of these ideas are the result of later development, but not the doctrines themselves, as readers of

Professor Cremer's chapters on the Apostolic Preaching, the Preaching of Jesus in the Synoptical Account and the Johannine Account, will see. There we have the substance of later doctrine. The best proof that the doctrine is rightly inferred is that the only way of getting rid of it is to get rid of the documents. Professor Cremer's method is, we hold, the scientific and historical one, the opposite is the speculative one. The several chapters in the volume are luminous summaries of the Gospel teaching and history. The chapter entitled "The Work of Jesus, or His Suffering and Death, Resurrection and Ascension" is particularly fine. The old doctrine is put in modern phrase and defended on modern lines. It is indeed a rich, full, satisfying theology that is here set forth. chapter on "The Miraculous Activity of Jesus" is a piece of strong, vigorous discussion. The only sense in which miracles are admitted on the other side is in acts which appear miraculous to us because of our ignorance of the resources of nature. Miracles like the Stilling of the Storm or Resurrection are repudiated. Our author shows that miracles are simply means to spiritual ends. Incarnation, redemption, forgiveness are the supreme miracles. How these can be retained when the lower miracles are denied is not said. The miracles are not solitary phenomena but parts of a system. A sinless Christ is as truly miraculous as the Stilling of the Storm or Feeding the Thousands. Yet Professor Cremer is open to new views of the function and place of miracle. "We do not believe in Jesus because of the miracles, but we believe the miracles because of Jesus." "We do not believe in Jesus because of His Resurrection, but we believe His Resurrection because we believe in Jesus."

J. S. BANKS.

Werturteile und Glaubensurteile.

Eine Untersuchung von Professor D. Max Reischle. Halle a. S.: Max Niemeyer, 1900. M.2.40.

THE subject of value-judgments is exciting deep interest. much discussion, and even keen controversy in Germany, not only in theological, but also in philosophical circles. A right understanding of the question is essential for a just judgment of the Ritschlian theology. Nevertheless the statements on the subject in Ritschl, Herrmann, and Kaftan leave not a little to be desired in point of adequacy and lucidity of treatment. Otto Ritschl, the son and biographer of the founder of the school, some years ago endeavoured in a pamphlet, entitled On Value-judgments, to supply the deficiency and to correct the defect. Although this work showed a very marked advance on the previous treatment of the subject, and sufficiently and successfully met the objections to the theory, that it sacrificed the objectivity of religious knowledge, and the unity of human thought, yet it left some ambiguities, affording a free field for further controversy. A brief account of this controversy is given by Reischle to justify his attempt to offer a fresh treatment, of which it may be confidently said that it does carry us some steps further on our way towards a solution of the problem of the nature of religious knowledge.

An analysis of the conceptions of "value" and "value-judgments" is first given. "I assign a value," he says, "to an object of which on reflection I am sure that its reality affords satisfaction to my whole self, or would afford it, and indeed a higher satisfaction than its non-reality." "A value-judgment is a judgment in which a predicate of value is assigned to any object." Next it is shown that value-judgments may be arranged in order as they approach universal

validity. Natural or hedonistic value-judgments, which relate to our feelings of pleasure or pain, may be individual, collective, or general; but universal validity can be claimed only for the judgments in which a recognised standard is applied. These ideal or normative value-judgments are æsthetic, intellectual, moral and religious, and the ideas of beauty, truth, right and piety are their norms. Intermediate are the legal value-judgments in which law and custom serve as the standards. The most important contribution to the explanation of the subject is made in the fourth chapter, in which a careful distinction is drawn between the verbal, the psychological, and the epistemological points of view in determining the conception of value-judgment. From the first point of view, only the judgments "which assign a relation of value to an object as its predicate" are value-judgments. From the second point of view, the value-judgment must be accompanied by a personal valuation of the object; an emotion must be attached to it; it may express command, desire, affection, or satisfaction. From the third point of view, a valuejudgment is "every judgment, the validity of which can be based, not on a necessity of perception and reasoning, only on the attitude of the man who feels and wills to the object represented". We affirm as value-judgments from the epistemological point of view those truths which we cannot perceive by sense, nor demonstrate by reasoning, but gain and hold as personal convictions. Such judgments Reischle proposes to call thymetic (from $\theta \nu \mu \dot{\rho}_{S}$). The following chapter fixes the place of the propositions of faith among value-judgments as thus distinguished. Most of these are not verbally value-judgments, as they often affirm facts, and do not express values. Nevertheless it can only cause confusion to describe them as "theoretical propositions on the basis of value-judgments," as Kaftan proposes, as this would obscure the fact that they are value-judgments from the epistemological point of view. As a personal valuation more or less direct may be assumed in all propositions of faith. they are value-judgments from the psychological point of view, to which Otto Ritschl in his treatment confines himself,

That they are thymetic judgments is beyond question, for their basis is personal conviction. Determining them more closely they are not natural, or legal, but ideal judgments. Narrowing the circle further, they are not æsthetic or intellectual, but moral and religious judgments, as "they belong to the realm of personal valuations, on the basis of which alone a true personal life in practical relations to the world is shaped". But they are not merely postulates or demands suggested by man's rational, moral and religious necessities. They are "directed to a normative divine revelation," and so are "judgments of faith, that is, of trust". To sum up, "the Christian propositions of faith are thymetic judgments, ideal-personal, morally conditioned religious judgments of trust". The consequences of the whole discussion for the problem of the proof of the truth of the propositions of faith are lastly drawn. That this truth needs to be proved, and cannot be simply assumed, the apologetic efforts of Ritschl's followers show. Critics have held that the theory of valuejudgments ignores this necessity and makes this assumption; but this Reischle emphatically denies, and makes good his denial by pointing to these apologetic efforts, and by offering a proof himself. Theoretical reason cannot directly decide the truth of the propositions of faith. It may reach a worldcause, but it cannot prove fatherly love in God. It suggests last questions it cannot itself answer. But there are necessary considerations of our practical reason which can be advanced as a proof of the truth of the Christian faith. (Here Reischle advances beyond Otto Ritschl, who denies the possibility of any such proof, and stops at the hope that his personal conviction will become general.) In this proof it must first be shown that Christianity alone gives a satisfying answer to the question. Can we in the moral struggle rely on the ultimate cause and final purpose of the world? Secondly, it must be shown that Christian faith is justified "in valuing the Spirit living in and working through the person of Christ as the divine Spirit that has power over the world". This Christian apologetic should, however, confine itself to what is morally valuable, and can be experienced as revealed. No

dualism of the theoretical and the practical reason is thus recognised, as it is the same person who thinks theoretically and practically; and the two sets of judgments supplement each other, and may be combined in the unity of one worldview. This book can be most cordially recommended as offering both a correction of some errors about the theory, and as presenting it in a more intelligible and credible form than any previous work.

ALFRED E. GARVIE.

Principles of Western Civilisation.

By Benjamin Kidd, author of "Social Evolution". London: Macmillan & Co., 1902. Large 8vo, pp. vi. +518. Price 15s. net.

EIGHT years ago, Mr. Kidd, an unknown name his was then, wrote a volume which at once arrested the attention of thinkers, and secured a popularity seldom given to books of deep reflection and far-reaching speculation. After a considerable interval of comparative silence, sedulous preparation and admirable self-restraint, he steps into the field again with a book which takes up the earlier subject and carries it to further issues. If his former contribution ranks as one of the most remarkable literary successes of recent years, this volume is not likely to be behind it in distinction or in the power of compelling attention. It is written in a style that is by no means either equal, or altogether clear, but which sometimes glows and is usually effective. It is pervaded by a spirit which is sometimes hopeful and at other times gloomy and heavy with boding, but always strong and living. It flings out ideas the worth of which will be sharply questioned; it prosecutes lines of reasoning which to many will seem fallacious; it makes for conclusions which will provoke keen dissent. In many things it will have to run the gauntlet of a criticism that may even be contemptuous, and it may not succeed in convincing many. But it is certain to be read, and it will make its power felt.

It is a bold, a soaring attempt. It aims at nothing less than a new synthetic philosophy, an entirely novel interpretation of the march of history and the system of things. The philosophy of which this volume gives the point of issue is to displace those systems which have been most characteristic of the century now behind us, and to expose their

shallowness, their lack of veracity, their unreason. It is to give us a profounder reading of things, one which, as it is partially expounded here, sometimes uplifts us and gives us visions of a vast majestic process, and sometimes makes us feel as if in the grasp of an omnipotent fate to which we are as nothing.

Mr. Kidd begins with an impressive chapter entitled "The Close of an Era," in which he calls our attention to "the characters and dimensions of a vast process of change which, beneath the outward surface of events, is in progress in the world behind us," and shows how the "great controversies, scientific and religious, which filled the nineteenth century, have broadened out far beyond the narrow boundaries within which the specialists imagined them to be confined". He closes his book with a great chapter which he calls "Towards the Future". In it he points us to the momentous empire which he sees before us in the new era, the universal empire the principles of which, he thinks, "have obtained their first firm foothold in human history in that stupendous, complex, and long-drawn-out conflict of which the history of the English-speaking peoples has been the principal theatre in modern history". He speaks of the transcendence of this empire, of what it represents, of its tremendous meaning. "It represents," as he puts it, "that empire in which it has become the destiny of our Western Demos, in full consciousness of the nature of the majestic process of cosmic ethics that has engendered him, to project the controlling meaning of the world-process beyond the present. All the developments that have hitherto taken place in our civilisation are but the steps leading up to the gigantic struggle now closing in upon us as the ruling principle of a past era of human evolution moves slowly towards its challenge in the economic process in all its manifestations throughout the world." In the intermediate chapters he elaborates the contrast between the old era and the new. He defines the essential point of difference. He criticises the phenomenon of Western Liberalism and other forms of thought, and applies a new criterion to the estimates of great historical, philosophical and economic

movements. The chapters on what is described as "The Development of the Great Antinomy in Western History," in which he expounds the conflict of ideas, the ceaseless and ill understood struggle of competing forces, the vast operation of half-recognised tendencies in the successive stages of European history, are of the profoundest interest. But all through there are more or less the same novelty and grandeur in the ideas, the same vast sweep in the generalisations, the same ambition to take all knowledge for the writer's province. At times one feels little short of overwhelmed, and is left uncertain whether he is grasping the great argument. But the tension happily finds frequent relief, especially in the expositions and criticisms of systems that but lately held almost despotic sway over multitudes of minds. One who remembers the days when the preachers of evolution and utilitarianism were thought to have brought us to the ne blus ultra in philosophy and science, when the apostles of materialism and agnosticism spoke with an authority that almost defied challenge, when the beliefs in the soul and immortality were thought to dissolve under the work of the laboratory, and the secrets of life and the universe were taken to be at the disposal of mathematical formulæ and statistics, has the delight of a vast surprise when he looks into these pages and sees how differently all is made to appear. These gods of the intellectual world of a century, a generation back, these great names of a Bentham, a Mill, a Huxley, a Spencer-what is made of them here? Purblind their guidance, shallow the waters into which they cast their lines, narrow, mistaken, provisional. their notions—antiquated theorists, touching only the surface of things with their elaborate, high-sounding schemes.

The great idea of the book is that of the ascendancy of the future. In expounding this Mr. Kidd takes up again the main positions affirmed in his Social Evolution, but carries them to further issues, to larger and better applications. In his former work he made remarkable use of the principle of evolution, and descanted on the struggle seen in human society between the interests of the individual and those of the social whole. His final statement was to the

effect that the evolutionary forces are working towards the greatest good of the social organism, not of the individual as such. But this conception of the greatest good as the end and aim of the evolutionary process meant, it was indicated. that that process looked to the generations of the future as vastly greater in numbers than the generation of the present. This latter is the master-thought which he elaborates in his new book. In doing this he employs again the leading principles and ideas of his former volume, but in a richer and more effective way. He gives them a larger, riper and more confident expression. He gives reason a better place, and evolution a more consistently teleological interpretation. He argues with a new insistency that utility is not the explanation of things; that a philosophy of the world which has that for its heart is of necessity a failure; that a new principle must be sought, and that this new principle is found in the idea of evolution when it was properly understood.

Here, therefore, he again accepts Darwin, but corrects and supplements the original Darwinian hypothesis. tion," said Darwin, "leads to the improvement of each creature in relation to its organic and inorganic conditions of life." It works "solely by and for the good of each being". It makes for progress, but for progress "in the light of the individual's welfare in or relations to existing conditions". Mr. Kidd looks to the later developments and modifications of the Darwinian hypothesis, and says this is not the real meaning of natural selection. scope and aim must be vastly more than this. It works towards the production of the largest results. It chooses and conserves and develops advantages in the economy of nature with a view to the interest of the majority, but that majority is not in the present. It is in the future. "In the operation of that deep-seated cause in life," he says, "which makes it possible for the higher forms to maintain their places only by continuous rivalry and selection, it cannot be said by any stretch of the imagination that the advantage towards which natural selection is working, is one which is

shared in by the existing generation of individuals. With the resulting advantage accruing at a stage always beyond the limit of their existence this cannot be." "Other things being equal, the winning qualities must be those by which the interests of the existing individual have been most effectively subordinated to those of the generations yet to be born." Evolution rightly read is the ascendancy of the future, not that of the present. It is the sacrifice of the present to the future, of the being that now is to the generations yet unborn, of the individual to the social organism in its largest sense and widest reach.

Here, then, is the real meaning of evolution. It is something vastly different from the conception of it proclaimed so loudly by some of its most confident prophets, something vastly greater and more profound. It is well to study here Mr. Kidd's interpretation of it in his own words: "When we look at the statement of the law of Natural Selection as Darwin left," he says, "it may be perceived on reflection that there is a consequence involved in it which is not at first sight apparent. It is evident that the very essence of the principle is that it must act in the manner in which it produces the most effective results. The qualities in favour of which it must in the long run consistently discriminate are those which most effectively subserve the interests of the largest majority. Yet this majority in the processes of life can never be in the present. It is always of necessity the majority which constitutes the long roll of the yet unborn generations." The centre of significance is shifted. The change is expressed in the "principle of projected efficiency". This is the phrase that gives the master-thought of the argument. What the evolutionary process tends to is the control of the present by the future. "The controlling meaning of the process is tending ultimately to be projected beyond the present." This is the way in which the evolutionary process has been working from the first. It has not been apprehended; it has been grievously mistaken; but it is now discovered. And as it has been operating thus from the first so shall it fulfil itself continuously to the end. The

principles at work in it are principles "involving the subordination of the individual and all his interests, and even those of whole movements and epochs of time, to the ends of a process of life moving forward through the slow cosmic stress of the centuries". So then all history has to be read anew. This is the process that has been in view from the beginnings of human life. It is the key to man's history. The preparation for this principle of projected efficiency, its conflict with antagonistic forces, its partial victories, its occasional defeats, its triumphant reassertion, its certain march to ultimate sovereignty—there is the explanation of all that has been happening through the ages-in the changes which have taken place in society, in the rise and fall of the various forms of power, in the fortunes of nations, in the progress of civilisation, in the long story of men's political, economic, social, moral and religious ideas and experiences. The operation of this principle, the movement of this process, has not been understood. But it is now passing into recognition—"the historical process in our civilisation has reached the brink of consciousness". The fact marks a change of almost measureless importance and introduces a new era which will be greater and grander than all its predecessors. The real purpose and movement of things will become a part of the consciousness of man and will be definitely applied to the largest ends.

Mr. Kidd takes us over the great stages of history, and reveals their secret as he conceives it. What he discovers in them is the perpetual antinomy or conflict between competing interests, those of the past, the present and the future, but all tending to the triumph of the third. In the earliest and most rudimentary forms of civilisation the present is seen under the control of the past. Power, and in the succeeding stages more definitely military efficiency, were the controlling principles. The rise of the great world-empires, culminating in Rome, issued in due time in the liberation of the present from the control of the past, and the ascendancy of the present became the great note of the civilisation of antiquity. The birth of the Christian religion meant the entrance of a new

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epoch that was to change the whole complexion of things. It introduced transcendent motives, the principle of the subordination of the present to the future, the law of self-sacrifice. Christianity itself reverted to the preference of power in its mediæval forms, and the significance of the Reformation lay in the fact that it was a return to the true idea of Christianity, a reassertion also of the principle that the spiritual is more than the temporal and material. How high is Mr. Kidd's estimate of the Reformation and its consequences will appear from these remarkable words: "Centuries are yet to pass before the real significance of the profoundly significant transition which has been accomplished is destined to fully permeate the religious consciousness of our civilisation".

What has he to say then of the present and what is his

forecast of the future? He is not blind to the dangers of the present. He sees how low the ideals of man in many respects are, how far we are yet in the grasp of the ascendancy of the present, how tremendous is the tyranny of monopoly and capitalism, how threatening is the economic and industrial conflict, how much there is of an "uncontrolled and rresponsible scramble for profit, governed in the last resort by the qualities contributing to success and survival in a free fight for private gain". But he sees in the heart of this condition the cure for its evils. Even in the economic struggle, he discovers more than self-interest, or the absorbing thought of the present and the individual. In much of the action of the great States, in their economic arrangements, their legislation in favour of equality, their protection of the young and immature against the tyranny of the employers of labour, and in other things, he sees the beneficent operation of higher aims, of ideals that transcend the present, of principles that counteract the selfish forces which work to disintegration and destruction. Mr. Kidd's outlook, therefore, is hopeful. Gloomy as the aspect of the present is to the common eye, the note that he strikes is not pessimistic but optimistic.

To deal fairly with a book of this magnitude, abounding in novel speculation and far-reaching ideas, it would be

necessary to read it again and again. It is no doubt open to many criticisms. Its language is often strained and there is a tendency in it to coin extraordinary words-normalcy and such like. It is unduly hard on some of the thinkers whose speculations it repudiates or refutes. It is not always clear in the statement of the teleology which it recognises in the process of the world, or in the part which it assigns respectively to final causes and efficient. It gives, as we have said, a more definite place to reason than was the case in Social Evolution. But there is something lacking still in its treatment of the rational foundations of things. As to religion, it is important to notice how essential is the position which Mr. Kidd assigns to it, and in particular to the Christian religion, in the drama of history and the fulfilment of the evolutionary process. Yet one may well hesitate to accept the treatment given it here as a part of human biology. And there is a good deal that is doubtful in the view which Mr. Kidd takes of certain chapters in the history of the Christian religion. He has some interesting paragraphs on the heresies, in which he states his view of the issues which were at stake. The account which he gives of the greater heresies is remarkable for the insight it shows into the real meaning of these forms of belief and the significance of the Church's repudiation of them. It is not entirely accurate, however, in some of the details, and it makes more of some of the minor heresies than they perhaps deserve.

It must further be said, as we think, that there is a note of exaggeration in a good many of Mr. Kidd's judgments of things. He is so absorbed by his great idea that he cannot see that there is another side at any point of his argument. He fails, therefore, to recognise the existence of other elements in the ancient civilisations than those that speak for the ascendancy of the present. Historians of Greek thought are not likely to admit that his view of the Greek civilisation is adequate. The whole antagonism between the interests of the present and those of the future as it is carried through the story of nations in these pages is put too absolutely. There is also the final question whether "human biology"

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olds the whole secret of life and history. One is ever on he brink of fallacy when he reasons from the biology of ature to the biology of society and man, and more especially to when he takes biological data as the master-key to man's whole story. But when all is said, it remains that this book eaves all utilitarian explanations of life behind, and shows hat the true philosophy of the world must have the ideal, not the material, at its heart. It is a witness to the fact hat there is more than matter and force in the system of hings, and that progress depends on powers that are not elfish but ethical and religious.

S. D. F. SALMOND.

Oxford Essays by John Richard Green. Edited by Mrs. J. R. Green and Miss K. Norgate. London: Macmillan & Co., 1901. Globe 8vo, pp. xxxii. +302. Price 5s.

This is a timely and notable addition to Messrs. Macmillan's admirable Eversley Series. It will be read with special interest in connexion with the *Letters* of the gifted author. "The papers represent an idea," we are informed, "which was constantly in Mr. Green's thoughts for many years—a History of Oxford." They deal with the "Early History of Oxford," "Oxford during the Eighteenth Century," "Young Oxford," and "Oxford as it is". They are enriched by a considerable body of valuable notes, and by an Introduction, which gives some interesting personal particulars, by Mrs. Green.

In these Studies the lamented author shows very clearly how poor an opinion he had of the eighteenth century in comparison with other periods, the Elizabethan, for example, and the Victorian. But while he has a keen eve to the faults of Oxford and its University in these times, he sees also into the deeper nature of things and finds not a little to appreciate and sympathise with. And everywhere the touch of the master hand is seen in these sketches. Instances of this that may be specially referred to are the descriptions of the "poor scholar," his duties and position, "the gentlemancommoner" and his liberties, the "toasts" of Merton walks and the "smoaks," the clubs, the races, the entertainments. the potations, and the tavern-life of the time, the state of the high-ways, the Jacobite prejudices and enthusiasms, etc. But the book is bright and attractive all through, and at the same time it has much to tell that is worth knowing for its own sake. It brings the Oxford of the past before us as if we were ourselves moving in it.

Centennial Survey of Foreign Missions. By the Rev. JAMES S. DENNIS, D.D., Students' Lecturer on Missions, Princeton, 1893 and 1898; Author of Foreign Missions after a Century and Christian Missions and Social Progress; Chairman of Committee on Statistics, Œcumenical Conference on Foreign Missions, New York, 1900: Member of the American Presbyterian Mission, Beirut, Syria. Edinburgh and London: Oliphant, Anderson & Ferrier, 1902. Pp. 401. Price 21s.

DR. DENNIS has earned for himself a foremost name among our authorities on Foreign Missions. He has laid all Christian people under lasting obligation by his former publications on this great subject. He has also been an indefatigable and enthusiastic worker in various branches of Foreign Mission enterprise. In this volume he sets the crown upon all his previous efforts. It is a book which it is impossible to criticise. We can only marvel at the patience, perseverance, and enormous pains which have been required for its production. It gives the statistics for the last century of the position, agents, operations, contributions, etc., of all the Foreign Mission Societies planted over the world. It arranges the information which it has amassed at vast cost under the several heads of evangelistic, educational, literary, medical, philanthropic and reformatory, cultural. It gives the particulars of the various training institutions, mission steamers and ships, etc., and adds to its usefulness by furnishing careful summaries, abundant indices, and a series of excellent maps. The laborious author is to be sincerely congratulated on the completion of an undertaking from which most men would have retired beaten. The churches and all friends of Foreign Missions should count themselves happy in having the volume. It will be found indispensable. It gives one a new idea of the magnitude of Christian effort in heathen lands, the progress it has made, and the wonderful success which has attended it.

Tetraeuangelium Sanctum, juxta Simplicem Syrorum Versionem, ad fidem Codicum, Massorae, editionum denuo recognitum, lectionum supellectilem quam conquisiverat Philippus Edwardus Pusey, A.M., olim ex aede Christi; auxit, digessit, edidit Georgius Henricus Gwilliam, S.T.B., Collegii Hertfordiensis Socius. Oxonii: e typographeo Clarendoniano, MDCCCCI. 4to, pp. 608. Price £2 2s. net.

THIS is a contribution of exceptional importance to New Testament scholarship. With the utmost care and diligence Mr. Gwilliam has laboured for years on the text of the Peshitto Syriac, and he has now put into our hands in this handsome volume an edition of the Gospels in that version for which we owe him our most cordial thanks. He has followed up the painstaking labours of the late Philip Edward Pusey in the collating of MSS, with a view to a revision of the text, and has carried out the plan of which he gave an account in his previous publications of 1887 and 1897. The object which he set himself was to exhibit "the Peshitto Gospels as they were read, on the evidence of the MSS., in the ancient Syriac Church". In making that object good he has examined a large number of codices of dates extending from the fifth century to the twelfth, and representing the testimony of the undivided Syrian Church, the Jacobites and the Nestorians. The results are of great interest and importance. They support in the main the traditional text. They show that the text of the editio princeps of 1555 is nearly the same as that current when the MSS. used for this work were written; and that the Peshitto version was not corrupted in later times, its variations from the Greek text being proved to go back to very early times.

The book is admirably printed. The Syriac text is accompanied by the Latin. The various readings are chronicled at the foot of the pages, explanatory notes being also introduced where they are required. The learned editor is to be congratulated on the completion of a work which is a credit to English scholarship.

- The Century Bible. General Editor, Professor W. F. Adeney
- Thessalonians and Galatians. Introduction, Authorised Version, Revised Version, with Notes, Index and Map. Edited by Walter F. Adeney, M.A., Professor of New Testament Exegesis, New College, London. Pp. 344.
- Corinthians. Edited by J. Massie, M.A., D.D., Yates Professor of New Testament Exegesis in Mansfield College, Oxford. Pp. 339.
- Hebrews. Edited by A. S. Peake, M.A., Professor in the Primitive Methodist College, Manchester. Pp. 251.
- Acts. Edited by J. Vernon Bartlet, M.A., Professor of Church History, Mansfield College, Oxford. Pp. 394. Edinburgh: T. C. & E. C. Jack. Price each 2s. net, cloth; 3s. net, leather.

These further instalments of *The Century Bible* will be gladly received. The plan of the series has been already explained in these pages, and it is enough to say that these volumes do justice to that plan and are no less attractive than those that preceded them. Each has certain features of its own, and in each there are certain peculiarities of opinion in matters of introduction or in the exposition of difficult passages. In all the historical and critical questions are dealt with, not only in a capable way but in an interesting style. The exegesis, too, is well done, due regard being had to the restraint, compression and omission imposed by the limits of space at command and the nature of the audience more particularly addressed.

There are some things in the introductions which are of interest. Professor Peake deals briefly but carefully with the problems of the Epistle to the Hebrews. He concludes in favour of Jewish Christians in danger of lapsing into Judaism as the persons addressed, holding that the force of such phrases as "falling away from the living God" (iii. 12) is not sufficient to weaken the evidence furnished by the general tenor of the Epistle. He fully recognises the difficulty of determining the destination, but prefers on the

whole the view that Rome is the place in question, and that the Epistle may be dated between the death of Paul and the Neronian persecution. He also accepts, surely far too easily, Harnack's theory that the Epistle emanated from Aquila and Priscilla, the latter being the actual writer, as the most probable explanation of the authorship. Professor Massie gives an excellent account of the condition of things in the Corinthian Church, the Church order, the parties, the ecclesiastical questions, etc. He also reviews with much care the debate about the unity of the Second Epistle which has been occupying many minds of late, bringing out very clearly the difficulty of keeping chaps, i.-ix. and chaps, x.-xii. in the same letter and in their present order, and suggesting that the severe letter was sent from Ephesus through Titus, and that when Paul met Titus with good news in Macedonia he sent him back to Corinth with i.-ix. and perhaps xiii. 11-14.

Professor Adeney discusses the problems of the Epistle to the Galatians at considerable length and in a clear and scholarly way. The most interesting section perhaps is the one in which he puts the question-"Who were the Galatians?" In reply he gives a very fair and well-balanced statement of the arguments for and against the South-Galatian theory and sums up in favour of it. Professor Bartlet's introduction to Acts is comparatively brief but much is compressed into it. He argues for a date somewhere in A.D. 72-75. He gives reasons for pronouncing against the prevalent theory that Luke's authorship is confined to a document underlying the "we" sections. He holds that there "never was a 'we' document apart from Acts," and argues that Luke was the "eye-witness also of what he records in xiii. I-xvi. q". It is of interest also to see that further study of the book has led Professor Bartlet to modify opinions which he once held. Taking Luke to have written the second half of the book on the basis of personal knowledge, he accounted for the rest of the narrative by the hypothesis of written sources behind the first twelve chapters. But now further familiarity with Luke's style and mind and methods of working has brought him to think that the

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phenomena of chaps. i.-xii. are best explained as those of a narrative written on the basis of "notes of conversations with eye-witnesses and others in Jerusalem and Cæsarea touching those early days". And among such informants he would place Philip the Evangelist, Mary and her son John Mark, and Paul himself.

Regnum Dei. Eight Lectures on the Kingdom of God in the History of Christian Thought. By ARCHIBALD ROBERTson, D.D., late Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford; Hon. LL.D., Glasgow; Hon. D.D., Durham; Principal of King's College, London; Examining Chaplain to the Lord Bishop of Bristol. London: Methuen & Co., 1901. 8vo, pp. xix. + 401. Price 12s, 6d. net.

PRINCIPAL ROBERTSON has been happy in his choice of a subject, and he has made an able and opportune contribution to our knowledge of it. It has attracted in recent times, especially in its New Testament forms, a vast amount of attention on the part of theologians. The social movements and aspirations of our day have also helped to direct men's minds again to it, and have given it a new interest. Much has been written on it on one or other of its aspects, though less on the one selected by Dr. Robertson for special treatment than on some others. Much remains yet to do, particularly in the study of the Biblical conceptions of the Kingdom, and something even in the history of the idea and its applications. Dr. Robertson's book is a welcome addition to the literature of the subject. It is an independent study, and is distinguished throughout by the qualities that make for genuine scientific inquiry. It gives proof also of wide and careful reading. In this respect, however, it must be added that there are some remarkable omissions. For one thing, there is no indication of any acquaintance with the best book on the subject in the English language—the late Dr. James Candlish's Cunningham lectures. This is surprising, indeed, as Dr. Candlish's very able book goes practically over the same field and gives

much attention to the history of the various attempts that have been made both in ancient and in modern times to embody the idea of the Kingdom of God in forms of government and social order.

Dr. Robertson's object is to "interrogate Christian experience as to the meaning of the Kingdom of God". This being the central purpose of his work, he devotes less space to certain fundamental inquiries than is usually given. He cannot of course leave the Biblical theology of the subject out of the scope of his investigation. He begins with that as is inevitable, and reviews its main particulars. This, however, can scarcely be said to get adequate notice, and it is here that the volume will be felt to be lacking. The pre-Christian doctrine of the Kingdom, including all its Old Testament development, is dismissed in less than thirty pages. It is impossible to do justice to so vast a theme within these limits. So we find the scantiest reference made to the positions of the great Old Testament scholars, while our best authorities on the theology of the Old Testament are little noticed. In most things Dr. Robertson seems content to follow Dr. Charles, though he does so with repeated expressions of his dissent from his ways of disposing of important passages of the Hebrew Scripture. The New Testament doctrine is dealt with more at length. Even there one misses much, especially as regards recent contributions made by German scholars to particular aspects of our Lord's own teaching and that of the Apostles, the question whether the Kingdom in the one or in the other is a purely eschatological idea, etc. So far as Dr. Robertson states his own conclusions on the New Testament doctrine, however, they will be accepted by most as just and well stated. The distinction between the Kingdom and the Church, the distinction also (in the Pauline writings) between the Kingdom of God and the Kingdom of Christ, the contrast between Paul's doctrine and the Jewish views which prepared for it, the conception of the Kingdom as both the future and the present, the designation of it as reign and as realm, these and other important elements of the inquiry are handled in a very satisfactory way.

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The strength of the book, however, is in the last five lectures. The fourth lecture gives an admirable summary of the history of opinion in the first four Christian centuries. The Millenarian question and the whole realistic theology of the Ante-Nicene period are ably sketched and acutely criticised. The fifth lecture is occupied entirely with Augustine's theology. This is the best part of the book, the one in which the author's power and enthusiasm are most felt. It is a very informing chapter, especially in what it says of the De Civitate Dei, the new philosophy of history promulgated by Augustine, his conception of the Church, the influence which his doctrine of grace had upon his doctrine of the Church, the changes in his views and the reasons for them. A great amount of valuable matter is packed into the lecture on the mediæval theocracy, the work of Hildebrand and his successors, and the difference between the ideals of that period and those of the earlier time. The seventh lecture speaks ably and appreciatively of Dante, and takes us on to the Reformation and the Counter-Reformation. The book closes with a statement of the "Kingdom of God in modern thought, work and life". We could have wished more space to have been given to this. A comparatively short lecture is all that is given to the story of the development and application of the idea from the Reformation on to the present day. Luther and Calvin are noticed, but all too briefly. The Genevan polity surely demands more than a page or two. Ritschl's views are noticed and subjected to some acute criticism, and a few pages are devoted to Christian Socialism. This is all too little. What is said, however, is said pointedly and well, and one cannot do all he might wish to do for so large a subject in a single volume. Dr. Robertson may enter the field again.

The Gospel according to St. John. An Inquiry into its Genesis and Historical Value. By Dr. Hans Hinrich Wendt, Professor of Theology in the University of Jena. Translated by Edward Lummis, M.A. Edinburgh T. & T. Clark, 1902. 8vo, pp. xi. + 260. Price 7s. 6d.

This is a good translation of an important contribution to the study of the problems of the Fourth Gospel which many have desired to have in an English rendering. We have possessed for some time a translation of most of Dr. Wendt's work on the "Teaching of Jesus". But the introductory part of that work in which the question of the sources was discussed was left in the original German. We are glad that occasion has been taken by Dr. Wendt in connexion with the issue of a new edition of the Lehre Jesu, to deal again with the Johannine problem, and we are indebted to the publishers who gave us the English version of the two parts of the former volume for this rendering of the new discussion.

Further study has not led Dr. Wendt to make any fundamental change in his position. He adheres to the view that the Fourth Gospel is based in part on a writing of the Apostle John similar in character to the Logia of Matthew. He abides also in the main by the arguments which he formerly employed. He does not regard the Fourth Gospel as a unity. He thinks that the use of the words "signs" and "works" and other things point to different strata in the structure, and that two divergent views are given of the foundation of faith in Jesus. He distinguishes between the historical section and the discourses, and where others have conserved the former at the cost of the latter he gives reasons for affirming the credibility of the discourses as a whole and in their main averments. The argument is certainly ingenious, and the whole inquiry suggests much. Dr. Wendt's theory is not one to be accepted lightly. It has not a few difficulties. It takes a limited view of the word "signs". The criteria, too, by which it endeavours to distinguish the original Logia from others are by no means certain. But it has much that demands attention.

Notices.

WE have also to notice Religious Writers of England,1 by Pearson M'Adam Muir, D.D., a volume of the Guild Library, giving sketches of select writers from Caedmon down to Thomas Scott, necessarily brief, but pointed, instructive and done with good taste; the fourth volume of the sixth series of the Expositor,² edited with as much success as ever by Dr. William Robertson Nicoll, containing many useful and some notable articles, including a series by Professor Denney on the "Theology of the Epistle to the Romans," a study of "St. Paul's Conception of the Spirit as Pledge" by Dr. H. A. A. Kennedy, a criticism of Professor Harnack on the Resurrection, by Professor M'Comb, etc.; a volume by J. H. lowett, M.A., Apostolic Optimism and other Sermons,3 a series of discourses on a variety of subjects, "The true Imperialism," "Rest for Weary Feet," "Startling Absences," "The Baptism of Fire," etc., vivid, direct, arresting, bearing on every page the mark of the practised preacher, and as good to read as to listen to; another volume of pulpit discourses, Immortality and other Sermons,4 by a preacher of a different kind, the late Rev. Alfred Williams Momerie, which deals in a clear and penetrating way, now argumentative and aggressive, and again chastened and appealing, with the mysteries of life, death, the soul, resurrection, reunion, recognition, retribution, restoration, etc.—a volume containing many just and helpful things, though it looks at these great questions rather from the side of reason and literature than from that of

² London: Hodder & Stoughton. 8vo, pp. 476. Price 7s. 6d.

¹ London: A. & C. Black; Edinburgh: R. & R. Clark, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 213. Price 1s. 6d. net.

³ London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. viii. +277. Price 6s.

⁴ Edinburgh and London: Blackwood & Sons. Cr. 8vo, pp. x. + 307. Price 5s.

Scripture, and fails to do justice, as it seems to us, to the teaching of the New Testament on some of the more serious aspects of its subject; Royal Manhood, by the Rev. James I. Vance, D.D., a collection of sensible and suggestive papers or addresses on such subjects as "The Majesty of Strength," "The Cause of the Weak," "The Religion of the Body," "The Ethics of a Smile," etc., thoroughly practical, written in a vigorous and telling style with pertinent illustrations from literature and from experience; a new edition of Pouchet's attractive and interesting volume on The Universe,2 issued in handsome form, with numerous illustrations, carefully revised and edited by the competent hand of Professor J. R. Ainsworth Davis of Aberystwith; Bibliographie der theologischen Literatur für das Jahr 1900, herausgegeben von Dr. G. Krüger, Professor in Giessen,3 a remarkably complete and useful conspectus, prepared by Drs. von Baentsch, Clemen, Preuschen and others, reprinted in separate form from Krüger's Theologischer Jahresbericht, with an Appendix from the hand of Professor Nestle, which gives the death-roll for the period; a volume on The Epistles of St. Paul to Timothy and Titus,4 by R. Martin Pope, M.A., forming part of the "Books for Bible Students" series, and giving sensible and helpful notes on the Revised Version of these Epistles, well suited to the needs of students, lay preachers, and Christian laymen; The People's Bible Encyclopedia, a book certainly containing much in comparatively brief space, giving in concise form and popular terms all that most readers of the Bible are concerned to know of its biographical, geographical, historical and doctrinal terms, carefully edited by the Rev. C. Randall Barnes, D.D., and to be cordially commended as suitable for the classes in view; Inns of Court Sermons,6 a series of selected

¹ London: Andrew Melrose. Cr. 8vo, pp. 251. Price 3s. 6d.

² London: Blackie & Son, 1902. 8vo, pp. xvi. + 576. Price 7s. 6d. '

^aBerlin: Schwetschke und Sohn; London: Williams & Norgate. 8vo, pp. 343.

⁴ London: Charles H. Kelly, 1901. Pp. vii. +248. Price 2s. 6d.

⁵ London: Charles H. Kelly. 8vo, pp. 1220.

⁶ London: Macmillan & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 228. Price 4s. 6d.

discourses by the Rev. H. C. Beeching, M.A., Professor of Pastoral Theology at King's College, London, most of which were preached by him (in his capacity of chaplain) in the chapel of Lincoln's Inn, a most readable and attractive volume, ranging over a considerable variety of subjects from "Religious Poetry" (a particularly fresh and suggestive discourse) to "Justification by Faith," sometimes overshooting the irenical mark (as when the attempt is made to harmonise the discrepant views of justification as accounting righteous and as making righteous), but generally characterised by just and stimulating reflection; The Harvest of the Soul,1 by R. L. Bellamy, B.D., Vicar of Silkston, a sober and thoughtful essay on the doctrine of a future life, dealing in a careful and well-considered way with reward and punishment as realisation and as state, affirming what is termed the consequential aspect of punishment as well as the corrective and vindictive, and pointing to the considerations which make it doubtful "whether after death the separation from sin which is involved in true repentance will be more likely to take place than before death, or whether there is reasonable ground for thinking that it can then take place at all"; the third part of the very useful Bibliographie der Theologischen Rundschau,2 carefully edited by Lic. Wilhelm Lueken; die bleibende Bedeutung des Alten Testaments,3 a pamphlet by Professor Emil Kautzsch of Halle, which gives a brief statement of the more important respects in which the traditional view of the Old Testament has been affected by modern criticism, especially as regards prophecy and, above all, pre-exilian prophecy, and indicates in a clear and judicious way what the change means and how the value of the Old Testament remains,

¹ London: Elliot Stock, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. 97. Price 3s. 6d.

²1901. Juli bis September. Tübingen und Leipzig: J. C. B. Mohr; London: Williams & Norgate. 8vo, pp. 77-119. Price 9d.

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CORD OF SELECT LITERATURE

Lotze's Philosophy, and its Theological Influence.1

No one can question the real importance of a thinker to whom expositions and commentaries begin to be dedicated. Their appearance and number prove that the age recognises in him one who can state, if not solve, its pressing metaphysical problems in a way that commands intellectual homage. In his own country and in others this honour has been abundantly paid to Hermann Lotze. It may be true, as M. Schoen remarks, that while the study of the philosophy of Herbart, his precursor in Critical Realism, has been facilitated by a multitude of expository volumes, Lotze's system as a whole has not yet been made the subject of any great work. Yet the most enthusiastic disciple has really no cause to complain of the attention bestowed in recent years on Lotze's writings. Hardly any German philosopher has received such peculiarly prompt and careful service from translators. Even of considerable monographs there has been no lack. In 1888 von Hartmann devoted a fair-sized book to a detailed and trenchant examination of Lotze's philosophy, while in 1895 Prof. Jones of Glasgow published his brilliant, if unmitigatedly severe, review of Lotze's logical doctrines, the long-expected metaphysical supplement to which many would eagerly welcome. Apart from special works, the references to Lotze in histories of philosophy almost invariably rank him very high. He is acknowledged to have given a most powerful and salutary impulse to philosophy in various departments, and to have merited special

¹ La Métaphysique de Hermann Lotze, ou la Philosophie des Actions et des Réactions réciproques. Par Henri Schoen, Agrégé de l'Université d'Aix-Marseille. Paris: Librairie Fischbacher; London: Williams & Norgate, 1902. Pp. 29t.

gratitude for his courageous resumption of the discredited problems of speculation in an age profoundly averse to metaphysics. All unite to recognise the singular purity of his intellectual conscience, and the width and liberality of his culture. A typical historian of modern philosophy describes his system as "the most fruitful and stimulating contribution to the movement of thought in Germany since Hegel, both from its clear systematic elaboration, and from the æsthetical and ethical principles upon which it is founded ".1

If his countrymen, as M. Schoen considers, are under a disadvantage compared with Germany and England in the study of Lotze, he could hardly have done a service more calculated to repair the defect than the writing of this book. He gave the public a taste of his quality some nine years ago in a work upon the historical origins of Ritschl's theology, a work which was executed with knowledge and accuracy, though marred here and there by a tendency to argue an indebtedness on Ritschl's part to previous thinkers where there existed only independent agreement. And perhaps in the present volume there is a kindred inclination to attribute results, theological and other, to the influence of Lotze, which were really due to the spirit working in contemporary thought. M. Schoen tells us how, in the course of his philosophical reading and reflection, he came early to the conclusion that the task of modern metaphysics must be to develop the germs of realism contained in the doctrine of Kant, and that he was induced to set forth the system of Lotze by the conviction that it is the best representative and embodiment of this realistic movement. He has done so with such enthusiasm, sympathy and insight that his book must be pronounced, upon the whole, the most useful and trustworthy on its subject. It is stronger in exposition, certainly, than in criticism, for Schoen makes no secret of his predilection for Lotze's methods and conclusions in the main. But it is an extremely able presentation of the

¹ Siebert, Geschichte der neueren deutschen Philosophie, p. 427.

philosophical work of an author who, in some respects, gains enormously by condensation. Schoen succeeds most admirably in detaching and rendering into French conciseness and lucidity the cardinal points of the ontology, cosmology and psychology of his author, praiseworthy attention also being paid to the philosophy of religion. The work has this mark of genuine ability and illuminating knowledge, that the reader will feel strongly impelled to pass from its pages to the study of the master himself. It is fitly dedicated to the venerated memory of Auguste Sabatier.

In one sense Lotze needs a commentary less than any other philosopher, though in the eyes of some this is not the least of his defects. He has been charged with sharing the fragmentariness and superficiality of the common consciousness, and no one need claim for him a too rigorous devotion to the systematic ideal. But at least he is intelligible to the ordinary reader, and, the business of philosophy being to interpret the experience which we actually have, it is not brima facie an unpardonable fault in him that he does not overturn any of our natural convictions. Many of the expressions which have led to his being accused of speculative indecision and antipathy to system are rather to be ascribed to his sober and genial sense of the limitations of human faculty, and his judicious scepticism about many of the faultlessly precise definitions in which an age of science takes delight; yet it may be freely granted that the bent of his mind was more analytic than synthetic. His severest critic (Hartmann) asserts that Lotze carries impartiality and caution to the length of never saving "Yea" without at the same time saying "Nay". "It is difficult," Prof. Jones complains, "to say whether he is an Idealist, or Realist, or both; and he has, quite naturally, been taken for a Materialist, for a champion of Orthodox theology, and also for an enlightened Agnostic." It may be pleaded in extenuation that a similar difficulty was once found in placing Hegel, and indeed it appears to be the fate of the greater thinkers that

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rival schools should each insist on taking them for its heritage. These were the defects of Lotze's qualities as a Vermittlungsbhilosoph. But aside from this seemingly inconsistent eclecticism, it may be confidently affirmed that a course of study under Lotze's guidance forms an incomparably valuable discipline. He is so genuine and persistent a critic. Erdmann has said, "the reader of Lotze must make up his mind to find much which appeared to him indisputable truth described as uncertain, and, in the same way, much which he held as indisputably false represented as at least possible ". His freedom from ambitious intellectual enthusiasms, his almost excessive antagonism to the inflexible demands of system, his distrust of a false simplicity of principle, his essentially modern sense of the complexity of life and experience, make him a writer from whom the novice especially can learn endless wisdom, while his contributions to special departments of philosophy will always compel the respect even of the unfriendly expert. There must be many who would confess that he first taught them to think, though they might complain later that he had not encouraged them to speculate. Nothing is more typical of his mind and emper than the saving that the business of a philosopher s not to ask "how being and reality are made," but to discover its activities, not to create the world, but to understand it.

Many of the elements in the system of Lotze only become ntelligible when we take into account his attitude towards other German thinkers. There is in him a curious pre-Critical strain, which comes out, for example, in his assertion that the fact of being perceived is at bottom only one more relation into which things enter in addition to others; and it was this, presumably, which led Erdmann to suggest that Lotze has gone back to Leibnitz, and revived his monadology in its essentials, ignoring all that has happened in the interval. He himself, however, affirms that the purpose of his philosophy is to effect a synthesis between the thesis of the Hegelian idealism and the antithesis of the Herbartian realism, while it is probably correct to say that Weisse never ceased to exercise a regulative influence upon his thought, especially on questions of theology. His fundamental standpoint, as is well known, is that of a teleological and ethical idealism for which the idea of the Supreme Good-which is conceived very definitely as Personal, and identified with the one all-comprehensive substance to which his investigation of causality leads him-is the sufficient reason for all that exists and happens. His metaphysic, therefore, strikes its deepest roots in ethics. Nothing could have been more timely than his work. He came to a generation which was hungry for facts, devoted to experience, half-intoxicated by the materialism which claimed to speak in the name of science, averse equally to the abstract idealism which would reduce all things into the transient pulsations of a single principle of thought, and to the inadequate mathematical methods of the Herbartian realism. These instincts he was peculiarly fitted to understand and satisfy by his profound knowledge of science, and his ineradicable conviction that even in metaphysics we must allow for art, poetry, and religion. He set himself accordingly both to stem the tide of Hegelianism and "to stay the Bacchic dance of the Materialists". It is just this mediating and moderating spirit which, while (as with Bishop Butler) it may lessen the romance and confine the sweep of his thought, makes Lotze the practised and catholic-minded master of philosophical discussion that he is.

The influence of Lotze upon theology has been frankly declared to be pernicious and obscurantist. In Prof. Jones' language, theologians, ever ready to trust the heart against the head, find in Lotze "if not the last refuge, the latest hope".\(^1\) His advent has been hailed with profound relief and satisfaction by those "who had all along striven against the reduction of God, the soul of man, and the world into logical processes of thought". And even those who would rank Lotze's services to philosophy very much higher than does Prof. Jones, are sometimes wont to represent him depreciatingly as a setter forth of doctrines palatable to the

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defenders of supernatural dogma. He is represented as having withdrawn the data of religion from the jurisdiction of reason as a merely formal function in our experience, and placed them in the sphere of a feeling which is simply incommensurable with thought. Are these things so? Does Lotze also remove knowledge to make room for belief? In answering this question we shall have to glance briefly at some characteristics of his theory of knowledge. We shall find that there is considerable ground for the charge that he teaches the subjectivity of cognition, and interposes an impassable gulf between thought and things; yet to counterbalance this there are compensations in his metaphysical doctrine for which his critics do not always sufficiently allow. Interrogate Lotze simply as an epistemologist, and he is

clearly an out-and-out Kantian in his conclusion that the objects of our knowledge are appearances and no more. Knowledge is but one species of reciprocal interaction, and the resultant of this cognitive collision between the mind and things is necessarily not an exact photograph of the outer world of reality, but coloured through and through by the nature of our knowing faculty. We know things, not as they are in themselves, but as they appear; absolute truth, such as may be given to angels and archangels, is for us an unattainable goal. Space, time, and motion do not really exist outside our minds; they are a translation into subjective terms of quite disparate objective relations, and the same may be said of cognition as a whole. Our ideas are properly the product of our own minds, stimulated indeed by external impressions, but resembling neither these impressions nor the things themselves from which they emanate. So far as his pure theory of cognition goes, then, Lotze is as convinced an advocate of the relativity of knowledge as Mr. Herbert Spencer. He speaks again and again as though in knowing the mind necessarily stood in its own light, and could not but do so from the very fact that it is a mind. "This relation of things to us we cannot eliminate," he says in one passage with what seems a tone of regret. Now by such habits of expression, by the repeated and emphatic use of

such phrases as "things themselves inaccessible to observation which we suppose to underlie our sensuous preception," "an invisible something which we suppose to be outside us," reality and intelligence are essentially divorced, and we are thrown back on that indeterminate and abstract idea of matter which plays so large a part in post-Cartesian philosophy. There can be no question, in view of many similar passages in his Logic, that Lotze is guilty of what Prof. Pringle-Pattison has called "the unpardonable philosophic sin-the assertion of the thing-in-itself as an unknown and unknowable kernel of reality ".1

How then does Lotze succeed in finally ascribing any truth to our knowledge at all? In one passage of the Microcosmus we find him arguing that though we cannot know the essence of things adequately, yet at least we can know them as causes of the impressions they make upon us. Each subjective phenomenon becomes an invitation to posit the existence of a real thing. Hypothesis is called in to enable us to divine what the essence of things must be. This results in the metaphysical conclusion that things, in order to be centres of action and explain the experience we have of them, must possess the capacity of suffering and self-enjoyment, in short must share with the human spirit in varying degrees the quality of self-hood. This hypothesis itself would be baseless, however, but for the act of faith which is inseparable from the very idea of knowledge, the supreme trust that we can attain to truth, and that reason may justly have confidence in her own powers. The objectivity of thought is saved in the last resort by the faith that the Good is also the most Real in the world, and that therefore knowledge cannot be a meaningless play of appearances. We are justified, accordingly, in obeying the principle Wieviel Schein, soviel Hindeutung auf Sein. Or as Lotze himself puts it, "all our conclusions concerning the real world rest upon the immediate confidence or the faith which we repose in the universal validity of a certain postulate of thought which oversteps the limits of the

special world of thought ". This may be a roundabout way of rehabilitating a faculty which seemed to be discredited for ever, but at least that he should have taken it marks off Lotze's ultimate views of knowledge decisively from those of Mr. Herbert Spencer. The English thinker argues that while we are obliged to believe in the existence of an objective reality, manifesting itself to us under certain conditions, we yet are eternally condemned to ignorance of its real essence; Lotze reaffirms the ontological affinity of knowledge and being by a bold hypothesis springing from an act of faith. The difference, slight to begin with, carries the two philosophers far enough apart ere the end, until it is hardly too much to say that no metaphysician "of this generation is so far removed from the ultimate position of Spencerian agnosticism as is Lotze". He stands finally "committed to the possibility of knowledge that reaches not only to the bare fact of the Being of the Absolute, but also to the heart and essence of its qualifications. We know not only that God is, but we also know what He essentially and eternally is." 1 Lotze's theory of knowledge has received a somewhat

adventitious importance from a well-known passage in Ritschl's great work, in which, after a rapid summary and criticism of the epistemological views of Plato and Kant, he professes his adherence to the positions arrived at by Lotze. "He holds"-so runs Ritschl's inaccurate epitome-"that in the phenomena which in a definite space exhibit changes to a limited extent and in a determinate order we cognize the thing as the cause of its qualities operating upon us, as the end which these serve as means, as the law of their constant changes." 2 The study of Ritschl's philosophical principles, as contrasted with his theology proper, is too unrewarding an occupation to detain us here; but it may be pointed out that he was mistaken in taking Lotze as opposed to the Kantian doctrine of the purely phenomenal character of knowledge; while on any rigorous interpretation of his

¹ Ladd, New World, September 1895, p. 409.

² Justification and Reconciliation, vol. iii., Eng. Trans., p. 19.

own language Ritschl himself must be understood as also teaching an essentially subjectivistic theory. And yet, so far as we can gather his general mind, it seems to have been his intention to ascribe to the theoretical reason a genuine and independent capacity of knowing the things to the action of which subjective phenomena are due. This view is confirmed by the interesting fact that an attached disciple felt it necessary to remonstrate with Ritschl upon the sinister realistic implications of this unreserved acceptance of Lotze's theory of knowledge; for, he argued, if you accept the epistemology you must likewise accept the metaphysic, which is organically bound up with it.1

We may sum the matter up, then, by saying that so far as the mere theory of cognition is concerned, the influence of Lotze upon theological thought is at most ambiguous. A type of theological positivism which attempts to fence off the sphere of religion from reason altogether can claim his authority only when it neglects the realistic metaphysical inferences which form an integral part of his conclusions on the whole subject. On the other hand the pretensions of an abstract speculative theology find in him a consistent foe, who never ceases to affirm that human thought can in no wise constitute reality, but at best represents it imperfectly. The main source of his influence, indeed, is to be found not so much in any negative doctrine, as in his positive insistence on the part played by feeling, or rather perhaps, by feelingcoloured thought, both in the structure of experience and our estimate of its meaning.

In using such language, we must of course beware of giving any countenance to the idea that Lotze founded a school of theology. We cannot affirm that if he had never lived and written the course of theological progress would have been essentially different. Indeed, that part of his system which was to have dealt with ethics and the philosophy of religion was left unfinished at his death. He made no specific contributions to theology. What is meant is rather that in a

¹ Ecke, Die theologische Schule Albrecht Ritschl's, p. 50.

remarkable degree he had a profound sympathy with, and intellectual comprehension of, the religious needs of his time, and was in not a few instances the first to give powerful and suggestive expression to ideas which were germinating in the minds of the foremost contemporary theologians. He has not unjustly been styled the most Christian thinker among the philosophers. Take his formulation of the characteristic convictions of every religious mind—"(a) Moral laws embody the will of God, (b) Individual spirits are not products of nature, but are children of God, (c) Reality is more and other than the mere cause of nature, it is a kingdom of God"-and the truth of his insight into the genius of Christianity becomes unmistakable. Theologians instinctively perceive that Lotze, better than most, appreciates at their true value the interests which theology has to guard and advance.

Three reasons may be tentatively offered for the confidence and deference which have been shown to Lotze in recent years by theologians of a reflective type. The first is his unquestioned eminence as a master of scientific method. The apologetic work called for in modern times is directed, not primarily against speculative systems which profess to solve the world-problem without remainder, but against the forces of agnosticism and pessimism which proclaim that no rational solution, even in part, is a possible object of hope for the mind imbued with the genuine principles of science. Unfortunately the defenders of the faith are too often ignorant of the methods and results of that science which they aspire to dissociate from unbelief. All his life Lotze fought the Naturalism or Materialism which in the middle of the century was so confidently promulgated as the inevitable corollary of science; but he did so with the established reputation behind him of a brilliant and devoted investigator in physics and especially physiology. His scientific training gave him not only a consummate knowledge of the methods and principles of research, but his conception of the majesty of natural law.

The unreserved character of his adherence to the scientific point of view is clear from the fact that, even after he had published, in the first sketch of his Metaphysik, the general philosophical conclusions to which he remained faithful throughout life, he vehemently defended physiological principles which led many to class him with the materialistic school of the day. This was in his Allgemeine Physiologie (1851). Here he adversely criticised the theory of vitalism later discredited, but perhaps destined to enjoy another season of favour-and contended that the phenomena of life must be treated in thoroughgoing fashion as purely mechanical. This note of insistence upon the universal applicability of the principle of mechanism is heard again and again throughout his later works, and when combined with his equally unqualified assertion of the freedom of the will, leaves him, it may be, with an unsolved antinomy on his hands. But in itself he held the principle of universal mechanism to be innocuous. "The more," he says, "I myself have laboured to prepare the way for acceptance of the mechanical view of nature in the region of organic life, the more do I now feel impelled to bring into prominence the other aspect which was equally near to my heart during all these endeavours". He argues that if all nature is mechanical, all nature is likewise spiritual, and in famous words declares it his aim "to show how absolutely universal is the extent, and at the same time how completely subordinate is the mission which mechanism has to fulfil in the course of the world".1

The apologetic arguments of one who ranks as an outsider in science are apt to leave the chief difficulties arising from science untouched. His conclusions may be orthodox, but if his knowledge is mainly a matter of hearsay, they excite the suspicions of the thoughtful. It is something to be able to consult a man who, in his demonstration of the limits of scientific methods and categories, is speaking with the acknowledged authority of an expert.

Further, theologians have felt that Lotze knows and appreciates the spiritual needs and instincts of the individual. Pretentious systems which suppress or neglect those needs found in him

¹ Microcosmus, Introduction, pp. xv., xvi.

an irreconcilable foe. He protests against the sacrifice of "man's inalienable and highest aspirations" upon the altar of materialistic dogma. He revived the sense of wonder and mystery in speculative literature. He recalled the attention of our age to the presence of factors in human experience which cannot be defined, and yet must be allowed for in our interpretation of the whole. As it has been well put: "He regards all fundamental problems from a predominatingly æsthetical and ethical point of view, rather than from the purely or prevailingly ratiocinative". If Hegel construed all things in terms of thought, Lotze construed all things in terms of experience as a rich and varied whole.

This may be otherwise expressed by saying that, in Lotze's hands, the ontological argument changes into a great fundamental judgment of worth. "It is only the Good which has in itself the complete right to be, and this is recognised in a judgment or postulate of value, which carries us beyond the merely intellectual region into the domain of feeling." The conception of worth, indeed, is ubiquitous in Lotze's philosophy. As M. Schoen remarks, there are no terms, after the central term of Wechselwirkung (reciprocal action), which recur so frequently on his pages as Werth and Werthurteil. Here ethics and religion take their rise. Even for the work of knowledge proper this conception is fundamental; we are led to regard the universe as a consistent whole, not by the demands of an uninterested understanding, but "by the inspirations of a reason appreciative of worth". This is both true and capable of development into a coherent and impressive theory, but the aspect of things changes when we find that the feeling to which the judgment of value is elsewhere ascribed is unambiguously declared by Lotze to be mere pleasure or pain; 2 and it is here, we may venture to affirm, that the Achilles heel of the theory in his formulation of it may be detected. It is one thing to say that judgments of

¹ Microcosmus, i., p. 244.

² Outlines of a Philosophy of Religion, p. 123.

value originate in a reason which is coloured by feeling; it is quite another to maintain that they spring from the feeling of pleasure and pain, and press reason into their service merely as a formal instrument.

In Lotze's own writings we have hardly more than the beginnings of a religious or dogmatic application of these conclusions. He makes tentative use of them indeed in stating his views on conditional immortality, and there is a still more suggestive reference to the revision they entail in the doctrine of the Person of Christ.1 Not that Lotze was the first to emphasise the importance of the idea of worth in the religious domain. It has been traced back to Luther, and it is expressed with growing clearness in the works of Kant, Schleiermacher, De Wette, and Rothe; but perhaps Lotze may be said to have made it current coin. Das Werthvolle allein das wahrhaft Seiende is a principle to which he sometimes fairly commits himself. No one can miss the influence of his formulations upon the thought and language of Ritschl. Take a statement like Lotze's: "What we mean by value in the world lies wholly in the feeling of satisfaction or of pleasure which we derive from it," and lay it alongside the classical passages on the subject in Ritschl's Justification and Reconciliation, vol. iii., chap. iv., and the close relationship is undeniable. And when we find Scheibe justly and sympathetically summing up the gist of Ritschl's theory in these words: "Religious knowledge is given by value-judgments upon that which God is for us, i.e., by the feelings of pleasure which we connect with the thought of God," 2 nothing more is needed to prove how easily theology on such terms may become infected throughout with the individual subjectivity of Hedonism.

It is well known that of recent years an extraordinary amount of profitable and fructifying discussion has circled round this theme. Real progress has been made in detaching the important truth that the apprehension of spiritual

¹ Outlines of a Philosophy of Religion, p. 172.

² Die Bedeutung der Werthurteile, p. 11.

realities is spiritually and morally conditioned, from its compromising association with theories which regard reason as an outsider in matters of faith. There was once a tendency in certain quarters to ask how far this or that doctrine satisfies our religious sentiment, rather than what constitutes its objective truth. Lotze was careful to insist that such value-judgments must never come into collision with the ascertained facts of science; but with certain inconsiderate members of the modern school the value of an object of faith has been held to be a decisive reason, pro or contra, in judging of its existence. We have no space here to speak of the various contributions made to the elucidation of the subject by Herrmann, Kaftan, Otto Ritschl, or Garvie. But it may be observed that a remarkably luminous and valuable addition to the relevant literature has recently been made by Reischle in his book Werturteile und Glaubensurteile. By drawing so clear a distinction as he does between the feeling of worth as an inner psychical experience, and the judgment of worth as actually affirmed, he has removed a fatal barrier to genuine progress; and it may be confidently expected that others will follow, with good hopes of making positive headway, in the new path which he has struck out.

The third source of Lotze's influence upon theology has been the thoroughly positive character of his thought. On this topic a few sentences must suffice. We have seen above, indeed, that in some ways Lotze might be fairly designated an agnostic, were it not that in default of demonstration he falls back on belief. So that while he turns his wholesome distrust of human omniscience successively against science, idealism, and a too self-reliant theology, about the positive character of his final conclusions there can be no doubt whatever. His Theism is uncompromising. It is likewise somewhat original in its statement, and the student observes with interest that Ritschl's philosophical defence of the Personality of God is drawn straight from Lotze, who formulates its main tenet succinctly thus: "Perfect personality is in God only, to all finite minds there is allotted but a pale copy thereof: the finiteness of the finite is not a producing con-

dition of this personality but a limit and a hindrance of its development ".1

To take another example, the positive character of Lotze's conclusions, especially where they border on religion, is very clear from the importance he ascribes to the Kingdom of God. We owe M. Schoen special acknowledgments for the admirable section of his work in which he exhibits the union effected in Lotze's idea of the Kingdom of God between two previous conceptions—Kant's moral association of mankind, and Schleiermacher's notion of the Supreme Good in which the duties of the earthly life are combined with the hopes of another world. This complex idea is subordinated by Lotze, in his religious philosophy, to the Spiritual Monism to which he was ultimately led by his examination of causality and which dominates his entire system. In this light, the different phases of human progress, moving onwards to a supreme common and spiritual end, are seen to be only different phases of the development of the Absolute Personality which embraces them all. It can hardly have been accidental that during the years following the publication of the Microcosmus a series of important studies on the subject of the Kingdom of God began to be published in Germany by such men as Holtzmann and Lipsius. Since then the same idea has been placed by Ritschl and his school at the very centre of the dogmatic system.

These are but illustrations of the convinced and positive spirit which breathes through Lotze's religious philosophy, and which naturally has attracted the confidence of thoughtful students of theology. Other illustrations of the same temper might be found both in his unwavering assertion of moral freedom-despite universal mechanism on the one hand, and Spiritual Monism on the other—and in his express vindication of personal and conscious immortality. But enough has been said to prove how completely this philosopher was in sympathy with the instincts of piety. He gave powerful and reasoned

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¹ This argument has recently been subjected to an extremely acute and suggestive criticism by Mr. McTaggart in his Studies in Hegelian Cosmology.

expression to convictions which ought to find a place in our theories corresponding to that which they have in life. And if he sometimes seems to betray a disabling and sceptical sense of the incompetency of reason to apprehend the divine reality which lies behind the veil of phenomena, it was but the irresistible reaction from the dialectical excesses of Hegelianism. To-day it is realised that Idealism erred when it put its whole trust in thought, to the exclusion of faith and feeling and will; without Lotze this error might have had to wait still longer for its detection and exposure.

H. R. Mackintosh.

Kurzer Hand-Commentar zum A.T. herausgegeben von D. Karl Marti,

Josua erklärt von Lic. Dr. H. Holzinger. 8vo, pp. xxii. + 103. Price M.2.50.

Das Buch Hiob neu übersetzt und kurz erklärt von Friedrich Delitzsch.

Ausgabe mit sprachlicher Kommentar. Leipzig, 1902. Price M.6.

Palästinischer Diwan.

Von Gustaf H. Dalman. Leipzig, 1901. Price M.9.

DR. Holzinger's Josua consists of an introduction and a commentary, both brief. The introduction, after discussing the usual questions, concludes with a full and useful table shewing the distribution of the text among the different sources. Each large section of the commentary is divided into three parts, the first containing the Textual Criticism, the second the Higher Criticism, and the third the Exegesis. This arrangement has a good deal to recommend it, and in a short commentary it does not often cause serious inconvenience, for it is easy to look from one note to the other. The textual notes make full use of the Peshitta as well as of the different recensions of the LXX. The notes on the analysis of the documents go fully into the difficulties, and form the most important part of the book. The exegetical notes owing to the exigences of space are very brief.

The commentary is of course open to some adverse criticisms. It is a pity, e.g., that Holzinger has accepted without hesitation Hollenberg's explanation of chap. v. 9 as referring to the circumcision of the people described in vv. 2-8. The expression "I have rolled away" suggests

that some action of rolling is referred to. What else could this be but the rolling of the memorial stones into their place at Gilgal (iv. 20)? And what "reproach of Egypt" is known to us from the Hexateuch, but the reproach that the Lord was not able to bring His people into the promised land (Exod. xxxii. 12; Deut. ix. 28)? The rolling of the stones into their place in Gilgal was the sign that the Lord had fulfilled His promise. But the commentary as a whole is very good, the treatment of geographical points, c.g., being very careful (see the notes on x. 3-12, xi. 1-5).

Friedrich Delitzsch has written on Job in a welcome spirit of independence. The book was composed in Constantinople, away from the author's library, and has probably gained more than it has lost from the circumstances under which it arose. The text is re-arranged in three parts. First we have the prose beginning and end put together as the Volkserzählung of Job. Next comes the bulk of the book under the title, Das Gedicht Iob oder das Hohelied des Pessimismus. Lastly in appendices are given the speeches of Elihu, the "Origin of Wisdom" (chap. xxviii.), and the descriptions of the ostrich, the hippopotamus, and the crocodile (chaps. xxxix.-xli.). Quite brief notes are added to the text at the foot of the page, while at the end of the little book a "sprachlicher Kommentar" of fifty pages is given in which considerable use is made of the editor's knowledge of Assyrian. Dr. Delitzsch believes that the text of the book of Job is not nearly so corrupt as some recent critics have supposed, and we find no violent rewriting of such passages as chap, xix. 25-27. Sometimes, however, violence is done in translating, e.g., in chap. xl. 20, " Ja, die Geschöpfe der Berge mögen ihn feiern mit Reigentanz". For this translation of דינואר Dr. Delitzsch appeals to chap, xxi, 12, but in vain.

Dr. Dalman's book is doubly welcome, since it serves a double purpose. It is in the first place a valuable chrestomathy of the Arabic used in modern Palestine, and in the second place it supplies us with fresh texts, from which we may gather illustrations of the language and thought of some parts of the Old Testament. Dalman's original intention was to collect songs which offer parallels for passages in Canticles, but the collection grew in his hands and soon passed these limits. Certainly nothing could answer better to the compiler's first design than the song of thirty-eight lines called "Preis der Schönheit," which was communicated by a peasant to Rev. W. Christie of Aleppo and by him imparted to Dalman. The face of the fair one is here likened to the new moon (cf. Cant. vi. 10), her dark hair is praised (ib. vi. 5), and after mention of almost every part of the body the singer concludes (cf. iv. 7) with:

hādi ausāf ezzēn mābu zilāli (page 111).

(This is the description of beauty! There is no blemish in it!)

The same song contains parallels to Cant. vii. 2a [Heb. 3a] (שריך), 3 [Heb. 4] (שריך).

Another song (pagé 106) supplies a parallel for Prov. v. 19 (דריה), a woman says to her lover

win tschunt 'atschan maijit nhūdi dūālīb.

(Und wenn du durstig bist, künde ich an das Wasser meiner Brüste, die wie Schöpfräder sind.)

On page 159 is an interesting little "Song of Ascents" to Mecca!

Up! journey on! O Emir of Damascus!
Here is no abiding-place!
There is no place but in Mecca!
Upon Mecca be peace!
O peace, greet with peace
Him who is shaded with the clouds (i.e., Mohammed)!

Every student of the Old Testament who contemplates visiting Palestine should devote some time to the study of Dr. Dalman's most suggestive book.

Dogmatik von D. Julius Kaftan, Professor der Theologie in Berlin. Dritte und vierte verbesserte Auflage.

Tübingen und Leipzig: Verlag von J. C. B. Mohr. London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. 8vo, pp. viii. + 656. Price 9s. net.

This is the second, or rather these are the third and fourth improved Auflagen of Professor Kaftan's work. The first (and second) appeared in 1897. It is, by the way, a somewhat puzzling custom which some German publishers have adopted of describing a work, at its very first appearance, as in its first and second Auflage or edition; and at its second appearance as in the third and fourth Auflage. Unless there is an understanding that an Auflage means a certain fixed number, and the description referred to simply means that twice the number have been printed, the custom is surely open to abuse.

Professor Kaftan is often regarded and referred to as a Ritschlian. In some respects doubtless he is; but though his development, as he himself frankly acknowledges, was greatly influenced by Ritschl—and what German theologian of the present day has not come more or less under the spell of that strong, masterful mind?—still he is in his way no less an independent thinker than any one of his predecessors.

Superficially examined the table of contents leaves the impression that the work keeps pretty closely to traditional lines. The old familiar *loci* are all there; the Prolegomena also, dealing with the usual topics. As compared with the systems of Dorner or Frank or Beck or even Kähler it wears quite an old-fashioned look. But careful scrutiny, even of the table of contents, much more of the contents themselves, will bring to light considerable, not to say radical differences, both of presuppositions, method and results.

An unsophisticated student of Systematic Theology will

often feel as if he had for once come across a thoroughly sound German divine, and be ready to rub his hands with delight, till he compares notes and tries to think himself first into, and then out of, it: afterwards he may possibly not be quite so sure.

Professor Kaftan's work is not ill reading, but it is not easy understanding. The successive steps seem clear enough and to follow on each other, for the most part, without break; and yet, somehow, one is left in a kind of fog. Perhaps it is because the reader has not succeeded in divesting himself for the time being of his old prepossessions; or is it because the author goes beyond the usual limit in the *Umdeutung* of traditional terms?

It has been very customary with Systematic Theologians to make a great show of deducing one locus from another by means of a sort of speculative logic, beginning, of course, with the doctrine of God and ending with Eschatology. That a strict concatenation is possible and ought to be attempted seems to have been hitherto silently taken for granted—not merely by Hegelians like Marheinecke and Biedermann, or Schleiermacherians like Schweizer, but also by Lutherans like Philippi and Kahnis, of whom the last-named defines the aim of dogmatics to be to "present the doctrines or dogmas of the Lutheran Church in systematic form, i.e., to develop and demonstrate them out of principles"; and by mediating theologians like Dorner and Frank, of whom the last-named says, "the task of Systematic Theology is to know and exhibit Christian Truth in its essence and connection". From this assumption Kaftan dissents. Not that he objects to a unity; on the contrary, he maintains that the unity recognised by him is of so strict a nature that no factor of it, nor any group of factors, can be properly understood save in the light of the remaining factors or groups. It is a question, however, not of the construction of a systematic scheme, but solely of the best mode of arranging the several loci. Kaftan would not indeed go so far as Strauss, who in his worst satirical vein. compares some of these systems to "sausages of which orthodox doctrine supplies the flesh, Schleiermacher's theology the bacon-fat and Hegel's philosophy the seasoning"; but he does characterise the unity accomplished as a "Phantasterei".

Whilst Professor Kaftan's presuppositions and mode of treating the point just touched on provoke my dissent, the kernel of his contention seems to me true. Indeed, I have been long of the opinion that Systematic Theology is rather a conglomerate of fragments of several sciences (or as is the vogue to put it, philosophy of them) whose principle of association is their more or less close relation to God, than a philosophically or scientifically articulated system.

What is needed, however, is just the full logical carrying out of a traditional assumption which Professor Kaftan pronounces untenable, namely, that "the Christian knowledge of God and the scientific knowledge of the world can be objectively reduced to a self-consistent whole". A true philosophy, that is, to quote the words of T. H. Green, "a fully articulated conception of the world as rational," would be just such a whole. In such a whole every true element of Systematic Theology would not only find a place but be seen to fill a gap which would effectually prevent the rational articulation of the world and its history.

Professor Kaftan's definition of dogmatics introduces us at once to what is perhaps the most distinctive feature of his work: "It is a science of the Christian God-faith (Gottesglauben), not a science of God". Elsewhere referring to the same point, he says: "The prevailing view, however, is different. According to it dogmatics is the science not of faith and its knowledge, but of the objects of faith. Faith is, indeed, pretty generally presupposed. But dogmatics is supposed to help us to a scientific knowledge of the realities of which, so far as they affect us subjectively, we are assured by faith; otherwise expressed it is expected to help to a knowledge that is objective, that is directed to their objective connection with each other." "This view," he adds, "must be rejected because it fails to do justice to the peculiar nature and conditions of faith-knowledge. It is the business of dogmatics, indeed, to set forth such knowledge with greater precision and exactness than faith gives to it; but it is faith-knowledge, in its connection with the life of the believer, that forms its subject. For otherwise, the reality on which in the last instance all the realities rest with which we have here to do, namely, God is not given (gegeben), is not ours at all. To want 'objective' knowledge of Him and of the connection of everything actual with Him is to treat Wissen, i.e., scientific knowledge instead of faith, as the proper and adequate mental (geistig) means of coming to God—which is incompatible with the evangelical or Protestant conception of Christianity."

The current assumption certainly is (1) that theology is concerned supremely with God Himself, and (2) that as sense is the organ by which the physical cosmos is apprehended, so faith is the organ by which God is apprehended. But Kaftan is not content with this. This he holds to be a slighting of "faith"; this is to fail in appreciation of its true evangelical significance, which lies in a direction of which Luther caught glimpses, but of which the vast majority of theologians since his day have betrayed woeful ignorance.

It was Schleiermacher, he thinks, who first recognised the fact that dogma is faith-knowledge, and that the aim of dogmatics is not a scientific knowledge of the objects of faith that transcends faith. His design was to make the system of faith (Glaubenslehre) independent of philosophy and to secure for it a distinctive position among theological disciplina as the science of the Church. He failed, however, to see that Glaubenssätze or faith-propositions contain and express real knowledge, not merely pious states; and that, correspondingly, dogmatics conveys real knowledge.

Ritschl's merit, on the other hand, Kaftan thinks, was that of recognising the place and function of faith as piety without overlooking its place and function as real knowledge. At the same time he allows that Ritschl laid too great stress on what he called value-judgments. That a large proportion of simple judgments are value-judgments, i.e., judgments in which things are estimated according to their direct value for ourselves, or their relation to recognised ideals, in which, that is, the value to us is treated or affirmed as a quality of

the things, is certain; but to say as Ritschl did that the religious view of the world is formed by value-judgments was a mistake; for it is formed rather by judgments of being (Seinesurtheile); it is knowledge in the strict sense, flowing from the knowledge that God is and what God is.

The question now naturally arises, what is this faith, this faith-knowledge, this God-faith, of which dogmatics is the

science?

It is by no means easy to unify all Professor Kaftan's descriptions of, and allusions to, these points. Indeed, were I not restrained by the presumption that a theologian of such repute must know what he is about, I should be disposed to affirm that they cannot be unified. I will, however, do my best to represent him fairly.

Faith and revelation, he says, are so closely connected that to understand one the other also must be understood. But as faith lies nearer to us, and is immediately given, it is necessary to begin with it. Now faith is present wherever a man experiences what is involved in the two facts of reconciliation and the kingdom of God. These experiences bring knowledge of God, of His nature and will. In faith, therefore, these experiences, which denote a revolution of the inner life, and this knowledge are combined, though the experience is the primary element. Revelation corresponds. It neither presupposes nor consists in a communication of doctrine; else doctrine would be the object of faith. Whereas God, God too as He acted for man's redemption, that is, for man's reconciliation and the establishment of His kingdom in the leading of Israel, in the mission of Jesus and in the outpouring of the Spirit, is the constitutive element of revelation. In and with it truth is communicated—not otherwise. Where faith is awakened, i.e., where men let themselves be reconciled and called to the kingdom of God, knowledge also is bestowed.

This knowledge, however, does not rest on the objective apprehension of the actual, that is, of God, and the working up of the impressions thence derived, but on an inner personal living experience of a peculiar kind, in an inner practical relation to God. Hence it is termed faith, not Wissen or reasoned knowledge.

Yet it not only includes knowledge, but is knowledge in the strict sense of the term. It is knowledge in the sense of appropriating or forming judgments with the accompanying assumption that they are true, i.e., that they correspond to an actuality which is given (gegeben) outside the knower. A believer takes for granted that his faith is full and proper knowledge. Religion itself would perish were this uncertain.

"The object of the knowledge which faith gains is not the inner (experience and) life of the believer, but God—God the most objective of all realities. The paradox of faith is that whilst it rests on the most inward and therefore most subjective experiences of the personal life, it asserts, yea, justly asserts, its object to be the most objective of all objects and therefore to be objective, world-embracing truth." The knowledge enclosed in faith is knowledge of God, and as such the highest and most comprehensive knowledge possible to man. Few will quarrel with Kaftan's application of the word paradox to faith, if this be faith.

The fuller appreciation of this paradox may be aided by a brief exhibition of his theory of knowledge and certitude in general, to which, as the key to his system, he himself calls special attention.

There are two great species of knowledge, the one the knowledge of nature set forth in the Naturwissenschaften; the other the knowledge of mind (Geist) set forth in the Seineswissenschaften. Knowledge of Nature becomes ours through the senses and by experience which things force on us. As it can be tested by experience which things force on us. As it claims rigid objectivity. Knowledge of mind, whether in other men or in history, becomes ours only in a limited degree through the senses, so far, namely, as it embodies itself—for example, in language. A subjective factor always enters into it, quite foreign to natural science. This subjective factor grows, moreover, with the growth of the importance and inwardness of the life-sphere which is the object of knowledge.

Its influence culminates in the domain of ethics and religion.

But the greater the scientific objectivity, the greater the relativity and the less the confidence of the knowledge; for as Goethe puts it, "ins Innere der Natur dringt kein geschaffener Geist". Whereas the greater the subjectivity, the less the relativity and the fuller the confidence of our knowledge. For in such knowledge, that is, in the knowledge of man and his history, we know ourselves.

"Science cannot pursue its course through the kingdom of the actual to the end without arriving at the point where it touches on, nay, enters the domain of personal conviction. And this is the link of connection between it and personal faith with its knowledge of God, that knowledge in which all knowledge is consummated."

Considered in itself the knowledge of God must, of course, be the final and highest knowledge possible to man. Such is the knowledge of God attained by and in faith.

In a word, faith being rooted in an inner practical experience of an altogether peculiar kind, is characterised by *subjectivity* in the highest degree; and yet it is, or contains, knowledge of the most *objective* of all possible objects—namely, God; and is the most certain of all forms of knowledge, nay, more, is marked by such absolute conviction that everything relative disappears.

If this be the case, and Kaftan reiterates it in a bewildering variety of ways, the tables are turned with a vengeance on agnosticism and scepticism. For, as he says, "knowledge is always knowledge," though every kind of knowledge is attained under different conditions.

Often as Professor Kaftan recurs to the subject thus very briefly touched on, he does not seem to me to make at all clear what it is to know God in faith, to have faith-knowledge, as distinguished from knowing God through the inner experiences which He works in us in response to faith, that is, when we fulfil the practical conditions which are summarily denoted by the word faith. Nay, more, there seems to me to be an element of exaggeration, of mystical paradox, in many of his statements which may possibly supply disciples with Schlagwörter, but will scarcely minister to true edification.

Many, very many other points, both in the Prolegomena and in the body of the work, well deserve notice, partly in the way of dissent, partly in that of agreement; but I must now restrict myself to one.

This is the unclearness of the position assigned to Scripture. Whilst he says that dogmatics is as bound to and determined by Scripture as any kind of real knowledge is bound to and determined by the object to which it relates, yet no proposition is allowed to be drawn directly from Scripture because faith intervenes between it and Scripture; whilst Scripture is represented as "the only and proper principium cognoscendi of Christian dogmatics, because it is the only authentic documentary record of the historical revelation of God," vet criticism must be allowed a free hand in dealing with almost everything that Scripture contains. If the Scripture representations of the Divine dealings with man are as affected by fancy, mistake, colouring for party purposes, forgetfulness, exaggeration and so on as criticism maintains, how can they act as a revelation of God, unless it be in some magical, mystical way that is independent alike of intelligence and conscience, truth and right?

The second is recognition of the service done by the school of Ritschl in general and by Kaftan in particular in opposing the *doctrinalism* which has been such a hindrance to Christianity and asserting the claims of experience and life as a true and trustworthy source of the knowledge of God.

His work, let me add, is unquestionably stimulating and suggestive, though difficult not so much to read as to grip. Its warmth of tone, ethical elevation and fulness of assurance with regard to God as revealed particularly in Christ, will doubtless make it helpful to many who either cannot grasp its teaching as a whole, or whom that teaching, if understood, will scarcely satisfy.

D. W. SIMON.

The Philosophy of the Christian Religion.

By A. M. Fairbairn, D.D., LL.D., Principal of Mansfield College, Oxford. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1902. 8vo, pp. xxviii. +583. Price 12s.

THIS is a great book on a great subject by one who is an acknowledged master in theological science, and who has already earned the gratitude of all interested in the progress of religious thought by the valuable contributions to theology that have come from his pen. The work forms the fitting crown of Principal Fairbairn's past labours in the elucidation and defence of Christian truth, and contains the result of a lifetime's reflection, experience and study. It is by no means easy reading. It is packed with thought expressed in language which, while always dignified and worthy of the subject, is often severely technical. The very fulness of the author's mind leads him to analyse and expand and illustrate the thought to an extent that is apt to obscure the course of the argument. And the reader becomes weary in the effort to catch the sense of the balanced antithetic clauses and the compact generalised forms of statement that are characteristics of his style. But it is almost ungracious to refer to these matters when there is spread before us so rich a feast of good things as this volume contains. If it is difficult, it is also most stimulating reading. The author discusses a multitude of topics and has something fresh to say about every one of them. We know no book published in late years that can be compared with it for wealth of thought, extent of learning and original insight as well as largeness of view and sustained brilliancy of exposition. The author is equally at home in the handling of great principles of truth and in the marshalling of details and facts that bear on their illustration.

The book may be regarded as a continuation of the author's last work on the Place of Christ in Modern Theology. Its object is to restate the doctrine of the Person of Christ in terms that exhibit and justify, "the place He holds and the functions He has fulfilled in the life of man, collective and individual" (p. 17). "The secret of such a Personality," he says, "is not explained when historical science and literary art have combined to tell the story of the life He lived, or of how He was conceived in ages of imaginative faith and metaphysical enthusiasm; but only when such a coherent conception of Him is reached as will show Him in organic relation to the whole system of things" (p. 17). The principle underlying the entire discussion is that "the conception of Christ stands related to history as the idea of God is related to nature, i.e., each is in its own sphere the factor of order, or the constitutive condition of a rational system" (p. 18). The aim of the author then is to establish such a conception of Christ as illustrates the supreme place He fills in the life of man, the universal function He discharges, the completeness with which He answers to the idea of One who is to be the Founder of a universal religion.

This is a most fruitful field of enquiry, and one to which the best thought of our day is turning. The defects of the old formulated statements of the Person of Christ are well known and have often been set forth. What is needed is a restatement of the doctrine based on a fresh interpretation of the Person on such lines as are suggested above, that will, from a different point of view and with the aid of new conceptions, do the same justice to that sense of the infinite worth of Christ that is rendered by, though imperfectly expressed in, the metaphysical formulæ of the early Councils.

It is impossible in a brief notice to convey a proper idea of the vast field covered by this book. I can only indicate the main course of the argument. The volume consists of two parts. The first, occupying one half of the book, deals with "Questions in the Philosophy of nature and mind which affect belief in the Supernatural Person".

Starting from the presupposition of Christian theology that

Jesus is a supernatural Person, the author is met at the outset with the question, whether the idea of the supernatural is compatible with the scientific view of nature which "admits no miracle, knows no supernatural". An idealist in philosophy, Dr. Fairbairn has no difficulty in showing that there is a transcendental element involved in our view of nature and man. Thought, reason, mind is prior to nature. Again, will in man is a moral cause and is not to be measured by nature but transcends it. "But the transcendental in philosophy is the correlate of the supernatural in theology". The philosophical analysis of personality thus discloses the reality of the supernatural; and this element in man it is that gives to personality in every sphere its creative power. "It is consonant with man's nature and God's method of forming and reforming it that He should send a supreme Personality as the vehicle of the highest good to the race. If a Person has appeared in history who has fulfilled this function, how can He be more fitly described than as the Son of God and the Saviour of the race?"

As far then as the *formal* elements of the Person of Christ are concerned, these are conceived by the author to be the same as those of any other person, the difference being the fulness in Him of that ideal or supernatural element which enters in measure into every personality. This is the assumption of the argument all through the book. The term *supernatural* is here used in the philosophical sense, not as the antithesis but as the complement of the natural, "the causal existence, the Permanent Reality that binds man and nature together and determines the ideas that govern men" (p. 30). Dr. Fairbairn declines to discuss the miraculous as distinguished from the supernatural so defined and understood. The religious or ideal significance of miraculous events so-called is alone of interest to him. This, the view-point of the idealistic philosophy, is maintained throughout the volume.

The chapters following, on the "Problem of Evil in its bearings on the Religious Question," are amongst the most interesting and helpful of all, and glow with that moral passion that makes the book as a whole most impressive reading. While vindicating the goodness of God in creating the world and in maintaining the conditions that allow moral evil to come into the world and continue in it, the author holds we are not to shrink from affirming the responsibility of God to His creatures for the system under which evil has been introduced, the Incarnation and the continued action of God in grace pointing to this as a root-conception of the New Testament.

This brings us to the chapter on the "Philosophy of History". In history we see the continued creative activity of God at work in the world, seeking to realise in men the ideals that make for freedom and righteousness. God carries on this work by the influence of ideas that have power to master the impulses of nature, and also through individual men who embody these ideas. And if the question arises, whence have ideas the power to take possession of men's minds and to incorporate themselves in man's conduct, the answer is, Religion. To understand man and the powers that move him to a higher life, we must understand religion.

We are then conducted to the deeply instructive chapters on the "Philosophy of Religion" which occupy the rest of this division of the book. Here the reader feels he is on ground that Principal Fairbairn has made in a pre-eminent sense his own. His familiarity with every phase of thought in which men have set forth their religious ideas, and every sort of practice associated with the worship of the Deity, is indeed remarkable. He illustrates very strikingly and at length the supreme place of religion in the life of the world. "It is the organising idea of society," "the commanding idea of human conduct," "the imperial idea of our thinking," "the force which holds the whole social system together" (p. 192). "It is in his religion that man knows himself man, and through it he realises his manhood." "He who can create its most perfect form is a supreme benefactor" (pp. 197-199).

Religion has a common and single root. But if so, how have we such a multitude of religions? The author mentions several causes which work for variation. But chief of these must be recognised the action of personalities, men of creative

genius. This leads to the discussion of the historical religions which are distinguished from those that are spontaneous, or due to the action of the common reason, by this mark, that they go back to historical personalities as their founders.

It is interesting now to note what in our author's view is necessary that a historic personality be the founder of a religion. He must be a creative genius, "in whom there is such a transcendence of local conditions as cannot be explained by the completest inheritance of the past, a personality that so embodies a new ideal as to awaken in man the imitative passion and the interpretative imagination" (p. 263). The founder is distinguished from the reformer. What changes the reformer into the founder is not so much his own act as his people's, "the creative action of his personality on their imagination forcing them to invest him with Divine functions and attributes". The founder must not only have a historical value for the religion. He must have also an ideal value for it, embodying for man the ultimate truth it concerns him to know. His position as a founder is, properly speaking, due to the act of the society by whom the historical personality has been idealised and made the "interpretative and normative term of the highest religious ideas" (p. 265). A founded religion thus may be defined as a religion whose "ultimate truth is an historical person speculatively considered" (p. 265). There are but three founded religions, Buddhism, Mohammedanism and Christianity. And in each of these it is the ideal significance of the person that determines the essential value of the founder to man and religion, the supreme relation in which he is conceived by the worshipper to stand to God, and to the ends of human life (p. 287).

We have now reached the second part of the book—on the "Person of Christ and the Making of the Christian Religion". This, in accordance with what has been said is divided into two sections, the Person of Christ historically considered, and the Person of Christ interpreted, or the "creation of the Christian religion through the apostolic construction of Jesus as the Christ". The result of the whole is summed up in

the concluding section on the "comparison of the elements and ideas in this interpretation with those most constitutive in the ideal of religion as conserved and exemplified in the historical religion".

First, we have a discussion at length of the historic Figure of Christ as presented in the Synoptic Gospels, in which, from various points of view, the author seeks to illustrate the perfect unity of the natural and supernatural elements in the Person of Christ that characterises the Gospel picture. All here is admirable and suggestively put. But the argument is overweighted by the redundancy of detail in the author's references to Gospel incident and fact. We often cannot see the wood for the trees. The teaching of Jesus is summarised in a few pages of great beauty; but it is urged with great force that, however original and impressive, that teaching alone could not have created Christianity. It was not as a teacher that Jesus founded His religion. The significant claims He made for Himself while representing a sovereignty that only a singular relation to the Father could justify, are of themselves insufficient to explain the founding of His religion. "Claims which are to rule the mind and the conscience must have as their ultimate basis not a spoken word, but an idea which appeals to the reason and satisfies the reason to which it appeals." It is then the later or higher teaching in the New Testament, which contains that interpretation of the Christ, which may be described as the creation of the Christian religion.

We come then to the important chapter on the apostolic interpretation of Christ. Our author does not state very definitely what that interpretative idea of Christ is that is common to John, Paul, and the author of the epistle to the Hebrews, who are mainly responsible for what is known as apostolic doctrine. It may, however, be said in general, that these writers agree in ascribing to Christ a divine dignity and pre-eminence in virtue of which He is to them the central term in a theology or system of religious thought, and the source of a new world of ideas about God and man that became the basis of universal religion. By this interpretation of the transcendental element in the Person of Christ, the historical individual was transformed into a universal, *i.e.*, an absolutely supernatural and creative Personality.

The conclusion to which we seem to be brought by Principal Fairbairn's reasoning is that we must regard the apostles as, properly speaking, the founders of Christianity, inasmuch as we owe to them that interpretation of the historical Christ that accounts for the supremacy which belongs to Him in the Christian religion. If inquiry is now made as to the origin of the apostolic idea, the author proceeds to show that it cannot be the product of any one mind, still less can it be the result of a mythologising process. The source of it, he contends, is the "mind of Christ. He is the logical premise of the Epistles. . . . In His teaching lie the principles they develop" (p. 425). The brief statement of the author on this important part of his subject will not command the assent of all. It is difficult, if we go by the synoptists alone (and our author excludes the Gospel of John from consideration here, for he regards that Gospel as interpretation rather than as history), to deduce from the teaching of Christ the intellectual conception of Him that rules the epistles. We must here, it seems to me, fall back upon the Christian consciousness, the inward experience of the power of Christ and reflection upon that experience, as the source of the exalted conceptions of His Person in the apostolic literature. Nor will it be disputed by any who hold to the identity of the Christian consciousness with the spirit of Christ, that such a source of truth is as authoritative as the other. In this connection we must also take into account current conceptions that naturally formed the mould into which the apostolic thought ran.

Dr. Fairbairn concludes this part of the subject by an instructive and most valuable chapter on the apostolic interpretation of the "Death of Christ and its bearing on the new conception of worship that the Christian religion embodies". Apostolic thought, interpreting the death of Christ on the one hand by Levitical categories (Epistle to the Hebrews) substituted for the Temple and its sacrifices

the sacrifice of Christ as the divine institution for drawing near to God. Interpreting it, on the other hand, by Rabbinical law, apostolic thought (Paul) read in the death of Christ the deliverance from the old law that made obedience impossible, and the sanction of a new law for the government of human conduct—that principle of love to Christ that has proved itself adequate to inspire the highest obedience to God and the most self-denying service of men. The exegesis of New Testament passages in this chapter will be disputed; but the truth of the principles laid down in it, and their value for the understanding of the essential meaning of the Christian religion, will carry conviction to all minds.

In the last part of the book on the "Religion of Christ and the Ideal Religion," we have the answer to the question, What are the claims of the religion in which Christ occupies the supreme place to be the ideal and universal religion? Amongst other points the following are insisted upon: the perfection of the social idea enforced and embodied by Christ, His method, by teaching men to be like Himself, for securing the realisation of that ideal, the significance, as the basis of a universal religion, of Christ's idea of God, the emancipation from local cults and institutions Christ secures for religion by making His own Person the sole institution of worship. These chapters exhibit a fine insight into the genius of Christianity.

No room is left for critical remark on this scheme of thought as a whole. Dr. Fairbairn is a writer who by the boldness and originality of his ideas provokes thought, and there may be a good deal to dissent from in this book. But it is impossible after a careful reading to withhold one's admiration of it as a splendid effort to vindicate on philosophical grounds the supreme place of Christ in the Christian religion. It is the fashion of the day to oppose the historic Christ to Christological dogma. Literary criticism labours to get back to the actual Historic Figure which the Gospel records, it is alleged, conceal as well as reveal. But here is a writer who shows us that it is the supreme worth of the ideas of God, man, human life, of which the Historic Christ is to faith the exponent, that is the true supernatural in the Person of Christ, and that alone accounts for His sovereign position in the world of humanity. We are grateful to one, who, with so sure a grasp of the ideal side of religion, emphasises once more the value of a true Christology and its importance for the understanding of the religion of Christ. This noble volume should form a useful and much-needed corrective of the excessive prominence given at present to the literary and historic criticism of the Gospels, or at least, of the exaggerated estimate taken by many of its results.

DAVID SOMERVILLE.

The World's Epoch-makers: Origen and Greek Patristic Theology.

By Rev. William Fairweather, M.A. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xx. + 268. Price 3s.

ORIGEN, a dazzling name with a halo clouded by unjust obloquy, was really the first of the "schoolmen," as well as the first founder of textual criticism, of exegesis and of parenetics in the Christian Church. Read "Aristotle" for "Plato," and transpose his mental attitude to the latter by a millennium, and we find that attitude reproduced, of course with modifications due to epoch and environment; but much more to the fact of his intense and noble personality—his openness of soul and buoyancy of native genius, by virtue of which he floats free and large in the empyrean of spiritual speculation. Accordingly he fills a niche in the series of "epoch-makers" of the world edited by Mr. Oliphant Smeaton. The present edition is by Rev. W. Fairweather, who has felt the fascination of his subject, and transmits it unimpaired to his readers.

Origen is one of the great men of whose mothers we know little or nothing. Jerome records $(E\rlap/p., xxxix., I)$ the fact that she had a knowledge of Hebrew, whence it has been conjectured that she was a converted Jewess.\(^1\) It is recorded also that when he was in the impetuosity of youth bent on sharing his father's prison and martyrdom, she circumvented his purpose by secreting his clothes. His own statement that when baffled by a Hebrew word, he turned for help to some "Jewish converts," might of course in that general phrase include herself.

The most Christ-like of the Fathers of the Church, early

¹ The question, however, is open whether this "Hebrew" was not a mere local patois current among Alexandrian Jews.

ripe and early busy in the things of "his Father," it may be said of him, more abused than any one of them in life and after death, that "when he was reviled he reviled not again". Athanasius passed a life of similar expulsions, escapes and sufferings, maledictions and calumnies, but all the world stood by his grave in admiration for the man whom one half of it had never respited from such persecution during life. Not so Origen: his works were proscribed and his "name cast out as evil" two centuries after his death by the virulence of faction and the mendaciousness of sycophancy. A later posterity has vindicated his memory until "overspeculative" is probably the only detraction to be made from the estimate of a soul and mind so nearly flawless.

In our own day what has most effected a revival of interest in the teaching of Origen is the popularity of the opinion of the unlimited possibility of salvation to the greatest sinners dying impenitent; through some occult process of redemption. renovation and pardon, to take effect presumably after this life. This gives occasion to remark that actual experience of man as a moral agent is not in favour of such a change. What we find is that human beings tend to fix themselves in a definite type of character under the force of habit, and that a comparatively short space of time suffices for that result. Thus a few years seem capable of producing an effect on the inner man which remains, for good or for evil, distinct and final. so far as our observation can follow it. What seemed once responsive and plastic has become fixed and set. We ground our own estimate of a man as sober or the reverse, continent or sensual, trustworthy or fallacious, precisely upon this known law of everyday experience; and society, not all at once, but after experience adequately prolonged, passes its verdict upon its own members for its own purposes in all the relations of life. Nor, so far as one can see, is that verdict often in error, nor do sufficient grounds often arise for reversing it. Of course there are rare and exceptional cases of the opposite kind. But they are too rare and exceptional to frame an opposite social theory upon. The comparative shortness of the period which suffices for the self-determining

process of the moral creature, and the often protracted period during which its results display themselves when the character is established, often indeed with a cumulative accretion as years roll on, are surely facts of a momentous character. They suggest an argument from analogy, which, applied in the spiritual sphere, is not favourable to the view of final rescue and eternal salvation either for all or for the great majority of impenitents, i.e., assuming their existence indefinitely prolonged. Indeed the whole idea of "probation" seems to imply that such a definite result is reached. Otherwise we continue the period of proof indefinitely, with, of course, the consequence that nothing is ever proved. And if a short portion of an average human lifetime yields such a definite result, what reason is there for supposing that a repetition of the process would be other than confirmatory of that result, even though prolonged through as many millennia as we please to assume? Of course to the Divine Mercy and to the Holy Spirit's unsearchable workings, no barrier of the impossible can be placed. But it surely demands a very clear and definite revelation to enable us to set aside so strong a presumption of human analogy against that optimism of hope which pleads the great name of Origen in its favour. Of course, Origen coupled with that view the belief in the pre-existence of souls, which might conceivably form a basis for modifying that presumption. But this pace tanti viri is really launching into the Unknown; and few, if any, of those who plead him for the larger hope in modern days share that view of his. But beyond all this, his "allegorical method" enabled him in effect to read into Scripture whatever he had preconceived, say, on philosophic grounds, as to be found in it; but here again, his latter-day disciples would reject his premises, while they claim his conclusions. And here we venture to qualify our author's remarks in "Prefatory Note," p. ix., that Origen "never failed to distinguish between his own opinions and the rule of faith as contained in Holy Scripture"; because unlimited allegorisation converts it into "a leaden rule" by an unconscious subjective process.

We notice with pleasure the painstaking impartiality of our author in dealing with a memory, and even it might be said a personality, than which none of foremost rank has ever probably suffered more, alike from its enemies and its friends. Origen himself complained that a forged account of his disputation with Candidus the heretic was circulated in his lifetime. Jerome is cited for the statement that his genuine writings were corrupted similarly; while his friend and patron Ambrosius, by indiscreet haste in publishing what he never meant for publication, seriously compromised him. His great work, de Principiis, is preserved only in the Latin of Rufinus, who took violent liberties of excision. Rufinus and Jerome between them freely "doctored" other writings to bring them up to a reputed orthodox standard; believing that they had been corrupted by heretical depravity, and perhaps with reason (pp. 55 and note, 52 and note, 125). But most unfair of all was the falsification of his entire mental attitude in certain discussions, founded doubtless on the dialectic method of the Platonic dialogue in which questions are freely discussed without any deliberate result being reached or only a provisional solution given. Athanasius says that he sometimes wrote ζητῶν καὶ γυμνάζων only (Def. Nic. Fid., vi., 27), an important testimony which the author has not recorded. There is only one point of defective erudition which we have struck upon, in the note on p. 121, where we read, "The word usually rendered for the chief musician" he (Origen) renders 'to the end'." But the rendering, eis τὸ τέλος, appears everywhere in the LXX text where the Hebrew word occurs in the title of a psalm, and therefore is not Origen's rendering. It gives us a startling measure of the poor equipment of the LXX translators for their task, being in fact a confusion of לנצח with למנצח (cf. Ps. lxxiv. 1, Isa. xxxiv. 10).

HENRY HAYMAN.

¹ Except a few excerpts from two books out of thirty.

Samuel and His Age.

A Study in the Constitutional History of Israel. By George C.
M. Douglas, D.D., Joint Principal of the United Free Church College, Glasgow, and formerly Professor of Hebrew and Old Testament Exegesis there. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode, 1901. Demy 8vo, pp. xxiii. + 276. Price 6s.

THIS book, in the words of the author, "deals with history pure and simple. The aim has been to begin by taking the account of Samuel given in the Bible as being what it professes to be, and to discuss it with willingness to do justice to the statements, yet at the same time to put their reasonableness and verisimilitude to the test of close examination" (p. 250). It is written throughout in the spirit of loyalty to the evangelical teaching and the supernatural character of the Old Testament which distinguishes all Principal Douglas' works on Old Testament Scripture. Like Kuenen, at the beginning of his Religion of Israel, Principal Douglas states his point of view. It is unnecessary to say that it is at the opposite pole from that of the great Dutch critic. "For us," says Kuenen, "the Israelitish is one of those (the principal religions), nothing less, but also nothing more." Dealing with the view that there is a specific difference between Israel's religion and its sisters, he says-" Without a shadow of a doubt, we deny the existence of such a difference". 1 Dr. Douglas says—"Till the contrary is proved I shall assume that these books are a history that is true, and worthy of our belief; for my own part I accept them as nothing less than the inspired word of God" (Preface, p. xiv.).

The exposition of the history given by the Principal is mainly confined to the first half of I Samuel. Attention

¹ Religion of Israel, Eng. Trans., 1874, pp. 5, 10.

is directed to the appearance, in the history of Israel, of four pairs of eminent men: Moses and Joshua, Samuel and David, Elijah and Elisha, Ezra and Nehemiah (pp. 2 ff.). Further, in the chapters of I Samuel specially examined, the number three has a prominent place which does not escape the eye of the Principal. Three signs are given by Samuel to Saul, (pp. 167 ff.), on three occasions Saul is made King (pp. 160 ff.), probably at the three places at which Samuel acted as judge (pp. 188 ff.); and the conjecture is thrown out that these three places were connected with the three great religious festivals of Israel (p. 193) [cf. also Saul's three great offences (pp. 198 ff.)]. All this reminds us of Nöldeke's examination of what used to be known as the Elohistic document (now P or PC). Nöldeke regarded a series of important figures in the document as an evidence of untrustworthiness.1 Dr. Douglas thinks that Samuel desired to bring together the people, and the young king about to be appointed, at the three centres from which he conducted the administration of affairs in the belief that there he might "most naturally and easily transfer his authority to the king with the consent of all the parties" (p. 172).

The Principal expresses the hope that his work may contribute to belief in the unity of the narratives in Samuel (Preface, p. xv.). On many points critics will not agree with him; but it does not follow that the Principal is wrong. Attention is properly directed to a defect in the critical argument, the circular reasoning which lies at the heart of the proposed reconstruction of Old Testament history (p. 21). In certain cases it may be impossible to avoid circular reasoning; and the history of Israel may furnish such a case. However that may be, the fact is that the critical reconstruction of the history of Israel still proceeds in accordance with Graf's assumption that the book of Deuteronomy was prepared about the beginning of the reign of Josiah (if the latter part of the reign of Manasseh is preferred the argument is not affected). That assumption is substantially the working hypothesis of the critics, and, in accordance with it,

¹ Untersuchungen, etc., 1869, pp. 110 ff.

a certain conclusion is arrived at regarding the early history and legislation of Israel, the first four books of the Pentateuch forming the chief sources of information. When that conclusion has been reached and recorded, the same books are re-read, and whatever is found inconsistent with the result already arrived at is set down as unhistorical. It may be all right; but the circular reasoning is obvious. Suppose a critic started with the assumption that Deuteronomy belongs, as it professes to belong, to the Mosaic period, and read the first four books of the Pentateuch in accordance with that assumption—would the procedure be less scientific than that of the critics who follow Graf? That question raises another which must be answered on the square, viz., Which of the assumptions best suits the age to which it is assigned? According to Grafian critics, Deuteronomy belongs to the early period of the reign of Josiah, and forms the basis of the Reformation carried out by that king. If that view is correct it is fair to presuppose that the legislation peculiar to Deuteronomy will be reformatory in character. Space does not allow a detailed reference to that legislation. But it may be said that a portion of the laws cannot be regarded as reformatory, in any proper sense, while others, whose reformatory character may be admitted, are as applicable to reforming effort, prior to Josiah's day, as to the earnest enterprise which characterised his reign-even the law centralising worship should be presupposed as the basis of Hezekiah's Reformation. So far then as the special legislation of Deuteronomy is concerned, the working hypothesis of Grafian critics can scarcely be said to suit the circumstances of the time to which it is referred. Other matters point in the same direction, such as the use of the name of Moses, by an unknown prophet, in the case of so important a message, while Jeremiah, a contemporary, followed prophetic precedent and spoke in the name of Jehovah; the extermination of the Canaanites (chap. vii. 1-5, and chap. xx. 16-18) and the Amalekites (chap. xxv. 17-19), while Assyrians had already, for a century, occupied the northern kingdom, and Babylon was about to occupy Judah. These and other points of detail require further consideration than they have yet received before the Grafian view of Deuteronomy can be accepted with confidence as a working hypothesis for the reconstruction of the history and legislation of Israel. And therefore the kind of circular reasoning to which Principal Douglas refers still lacks justification.

Principal Douglas refers to another matter which should be laid to heart by earnest-minded laymen. The critics are experts, and the Principal appeals from them to the jury. "It is the jury," he writes, "who have to determine the weight to be attached to the opinions of the witnesses; and in . . . public trials it is often the opinion of experts which is handled with greatest severity by the good common sense of those who take cognisance of it" (p. 20). There is good reason for this observation by the Principal. The critical question at present is largely historical. The translation of the Old Testament in the Revised Version is sufficiently accurate for such a discussion. The jury whom Dr. Douglas has in view is the Church. And it will be a fatal mistakea course of action quite unworthy of our Protestant position -if the Christian laity should leave the settlement of the grave historical questions now under discussion to a comparatively small number of experts in Hebrew, Mr. Gladstone was wont to contend that, on a certain class of questions, the instinct of the masses was more trustworthy than the arguments of the classes. In present biblical discussions. questions arise from time to time, for the settlement of which the instinct of the Christian people is more to be relied on than the psychology of the critics. The Bible is the people's book, and is true to human nature. It is impossible to say so much for the psychology of many of our critics. And if this volume should have the effect of rousing our Christian laymen to make this question their own, it will serve a purpose of high value for the future of Biblical study.

The World before Abraham.

According to Genesis i.-xi., with an Introduction to the Pentateuch, by H. G. Mitchell, Professor in Boston University. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1901. Pp. 296. Price \$1.75 net.

Hebräisch und Semitisch.

Prolegomena und Grundlinien einer Geschichte der Semitischen Sprachen, nebst einem Excurs über die vorjoshuanische Sprache Israels und die Pentateuchquelle. Von Eduard König, Professor an der Universität Bonn. Berlin: Verlag von Reuther und Reichard; London: Williams & Norgate. Pp. 128. Price 4s. net.

Die Alttestamentliche Schätzung des Gottesnamens und ihre Religionsgeschichtliche Grundlage.

Von D. Fr. Giesebrecht, Ord. Professor der Theologie an der Universität Königsberg. Königsberg i. Pr.: Verlag von Thomas und Oppermann, 1901. Pp. 144. Price M.4.

Die Einwanderung der israelitischen Stämme in Kanaan.

Historisch-kritische Untersuchungen von Lic. Theol. Dr. Carl Steuernagel, Privatdocent der Theologie in Halle a. S. Berlin: C. A. Schwetschke und Sohn; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. Pp. 131. Price 4s. net.

PROFESSOR MITCHELL'S work on Genesis, the first instalment of which is before us, has been undertaken for the purpose of supplying the demand indicated by frequent requests such as the following which appeared in a popular religious weekly: "Kindly give the name of some book on Genesis which treats it from the view-point of modern scholarship". Professor

Mitchell says that thus far little has been done in England or America to meet this widespread demand. "Dillmann's work, which, though very valuable to those who are able to appreciate it, is too large, too learned, and too expensive for most students of the Bible. This state of things ought not to continue." The first part (67 pages) of Professor Mitchell's book is devoted to a discussion of the Pentateuchal question, in which "the law of Moses" is recognised as "a composite work, the growth of the entire period from Moses to Ezra". A lucid account is given of the trend and results of criticism; and this is followed by a translation of Gen. i.-xi., in which the various strata of narratives are indicated by different types. The proper names, being presented in the exact Hebrew, not the ordinary English, forms-'Adham, Hebhel, Kayin, Tubhal, Saray, etc.—give the translation a somewhat forbidding look, and one may doubt the advantage of this relentless accuracy in a book which is intentionally popular. The commentary which follows (pp. 95-284) is admirable. One notes that in Professor Mitchell's view the Serpent of Eden is not Satan but a real animal; that "a local inundation was the common foundation of the three accounts of the Flood; and that the people referred to in the blessing, "May God enlarge Yepheth (Japheth)," is not, as Wellhausen thinks, the Philistines, but, as Budde believes, the Phœnicians.

No one has done better service in the department of Hebrew grammar and syntax than Professor König. The purpose of his latest booklet, which he says he sketched out twelve years ago, is "to show the real historical order of the Semitic languages". Down to the time of Ewald (inclusive) it was believed that Hebrew had the greatest relative antiquity among the Semitic tongues. It is now generally recognised that Arabic stands in closer relation to the original Semitic language, and preserves its grammatical forms more intact, than any of the other branches—Hebrew, Aramaic, Ethiopic, Assyriac—of the Semitic stem. "In a historical account of the origin of Hebrew grammatical forms we must proceed

from the corresponding forms of Old Arabic, Ethiopic, Assyriac, and not conversely from Hebrew to Old Arabic, etc." Arabic, shut up in its native deserts, was less affected by outside influences than any of the other branches. "That the Arabs themselves were proud of their noble language, and that their grammarians found the light by which they illuminated the darker and more problematical parts of their linguistic treasure in the desert among the Bedouins, who preserved the nobler linguistic forms, depended no doubt partly upon their lofty national consciousness, but may at the same time have arisen from a true instinct of comparative philology." The latter part of Dr. König's book is devoted to an examination and refutation of Hommel's theory that from the time of Abraham to that of Joshua the Hebrews spoke a pure Aramaic dialect.

What is the meaning of the words, "in the name of Jahve"? This is the question which Professor Giesebrecht tries to answer in his latest brochure. The divine "name" is usually said to signify whatever has been revealed to man regarding God, whatever man knows about God. Giesebrecht examines the views-mostly to the same effect-of Schultz, Riehm, Dillmann, Cremer, Stade, Smend, and others, and is not satisfied with any of them. Another view has forced itself upon him. "For primitive mankind a name has a dæmonic character. It is the double of the bearer, be he God or man, and must be treated with the utmost caution." Skilfully used the divine name is the magical means of constraining the deity to obey man's behests. Search is made in the folklore of different nations for evidence in support of this theory. Giesebrecht admits that in the language of the prophets the "name" of Jahve has been completely ethicised, but contends that in the popular usage the old magical significance never ceased to make itself felt, and that this explains many things in the Old Testament. Here Giesebrecht seems as vet to stand alone. In the article on "Name" in the Encycl. Bib., Professor Cheyne is content with the ordinary theory that "to Vol. XII.-No. 4. 22

primitive man the name is the expression of the personality," and "the 'name' of a God is properly his manifestation".

"When the legend represents the twelve patriarchs as sons of one man (Jacob-Israel), this confessedly means that the corresponding twelve tribes are the subdivisions of a greater community, the people of Israel." This is the hypothesis on which Dr. Steuernagel bases an interesting discussion regarding the immigration of the tribes of Israel into Canaan. From the genealogical system he deduces the theory that the people of Israel at first consisted of the four tribes of Leah, Rachel, Bilhah and Zilpah, which were afterwards divided into the twelve tribes. This latter division was, he thinks, unknown until after the settlement in Canaan. "The tribes of Leah at the time of the immigration formed but a single tribe." The fact that Zilpah is called the handmaid of Leah means that "the tribes of Zilpah were only half-Israelitish". The Hebrews intermarried with the Canaanites and founded the new tribes which were half-heathenish. Hence the names of Zilpah's children, Gad and Asher, are the names of heathen gods. Further, the children of Leah and Zilpah were older than those of Rachel and Bilhah. This means that after the first immigration into Canaan there was a second from Syria, and the resulting fusion—the marriage of Jacob and Rachel—gave rise to the new tribes of Rachel (full-Israelitish) and Bilhah (half-heathenish). The statement that Joseph's younger son Ephraim was preferred to Manasseh the elder expresses the historical fact that first Manasseh and then Ephraim was the stronger of the two tribes. In every part of the family history Dr. Steuernagel finds a reflection of actual occurrences during or subsequent to the time of the settlement of the Hebrews in Canaan. In the second half of his book he endeavours to bring his theories into relation with the various strata of narratives in Numbers and Joshua. In the Jehovistic story he finds a good many phenomena which confirm his hypothesis; in the later narratives scarcely anything.

Das Messiasgeheimnis in den Evangelien.

Von Dr. W. Wrede, o. Professor d. ev. Theologie zu Breslau. Göttingen: Vandenhoeck und Ruprecht; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. 8vo, pp. vii. +291. Price 8s. net.

This is an irritating book. It is written in a series of short, jerky paragraphs. The chapters have numberless subdivisions. Just when you expect to follow some sustained course of reasoning, you are hurried off to a new group of arguments, with the promise that those left behind will be resumed later on.

The main subject is the testing of the Gospel tradition of Jesus as the Messiah. Some sentences in the Preface tend to shake our confidence in the author's point of view. "History," he says (p. vi.), "teaches that after the writing down of the earliest Gospels, extraordinary alterations were made in the portrait of Jesus. Why it must have been otherwise before then, I cannot see." It scarcely requires much insight to reply that the nearer the tradition stood to the events, the more likely it was to be true to facts. Certainly Wrede does not attempt to conceal his presuppositions. He openly speaks of historical investigation as "not recognising miracles in the strict sense" (p. 48). "It is evident," we are told in another place (p. 87), "that Jesus cannot have prophesied the absolute miracle of an immediate return to life."

Assuming with most scholars that our Mark or a Gospel extremely like it lies at the basis of the other two Synoptists, and that therefore on Mark rests the main responsibility for the tradition regarding the course and development of the life of Jesus, Wrede sets that Gospel necessarily in the forefront of his investigation. Indeed, the sub-title of the book is "a contribution to the understanding of Mark's Gospel". He approaches his subject with the explicit purpose of correcting

certain defects which he finds prominent in contemporary criticism. This will be possible if various cautions are kept in view. We have to remember, for example, that the material presented to us in the Gospels is only the conception formed by a later narrator of the life of Jesus, and that this conception is not identical with the actual facts. Surely this is a most unwarranted assumption for a scientific investigator to start with. He may be compelled to that conclusion later on, but it is a begging of the whole question to begin at that point. Again Wrede considers that critics have shown a disposition to read into the narrative ideas which never occurred to the writer. Unfortunately no critic has afforded more numerous examples of this practice than Wrede himself. A further charge which he brings against his fellow investigators is that of "psychological conjecture". He sneers at some who "reveal such an intimate acquaintance with the inner life of Jesus that one might doubt whether he was listening to a close friend of Jesus or reading a novel" (p. 3). This distrust is a most convenient weapon. And it is constantly used by Wrede, who, when he wishes to get rid of an interpretation inconvenient for his theory, describes it as "a mere judgment of taste" (e.g., p. 61). But surely psychological conjecture is quite indispensable for the interpretation of history. And when the history is that of the most marvellous spiritual movement known to the human race, psychological conjecture may be merely a disparaging name for that spiritual sympathy which is, after all, the safest clue to the problems of the Gospels. Here again, we find our author repeatedly falling into the dangers against which he warns. He speaks, e.g., of "an idea which Jesus could not have hit upon" (p. 49). In commenting on the phrase ws έξουσίαν έχων (Mark i. 22) in the interests of his theory, he affirms that by these words Mark cannot have meant the mighty, overpowering impression of the preaching of Jesus, as we should naturally interpret them. In fact, he is always ready to suggest the lines which the Evangelist's thoughts must have followed. His own dictum applies literally to the method which he employs: "It appears to me urgently necessary that in this matter (i.e., psychological conjecture) we should get rid of subjective judgments " (p. 3).

Perhaps it will tend to clearness, if we begin by stating the results which Wrede reaches from his investigation of Mark. "We find in Mark," he says, "two conceptions. (1) So long as He is on earth, Jesus keeps His Messiahship a secret. (2) No doubt He reveals Himself to the disciples in contrast to the multitude, but even to them, for the time being, He remains in His revelations unintelligible. Both conceptions, which often pass over into each other, have for their basis the view that the real knowledge of what He is begins with His resurrection. This conception of the concealed Messiahship has in Mark a notable expansion. It controls many sayings of Jesus, numerous stories of miracles, and in effect the whole course of the historical narrative." How has this astonishing position been arrived at? Obviously, the narrative, as it has come down to us, must be 'severely handled, in order to admit of such an interpretation. Our author is aware that critics of all schools have professed to find in Mark the genuine historical course of the life of Jesus. This, he believes, is the supreme obstacle to the right comprehension of the Gospel. "A multitude of things must be read between the lines of Mark, if one wishes to prove in him a really intelligible development. Why does Jesus statedly forbid them to speak of His Messianic dignity and His miraculous deeds? Why is He silent in presence of the disciples? The motive that He desires them to reach the true attitude towards Him from within outwards is not hinted at and is not self-evident" (p. 13). It is precisely at this point that most unprejudiced critics will join issue with Wrede. This purpose of Jesus is the most self-evident thing in the Gospels. Our author may call it a "judgment of taste". To the majority of reasonable students of the narrative it will appear a judgment based on facts. Wrede continues: "In the same way we are asked to conjecture that Jesus points to His sufferings in order to purify the Messianic faith of the disciples from Jewish dross. Might we not expect occasionally a hint of such motives?" We fail to see any reason for such hints. The evangelist was writing for early Christians who would probably find little difficulty in grasping the situation, and not for twentiethcentury critics with pet theories to establish. The method adopted by Wrede to justify his hypothesis proceeds on the following lines. First, he examines the knowledge of Jesus as Messiah exhibited by the demoniacs in the Gospel of Mark. These narratives are pronounced to be unhistorical, largely because they are not psychologically intelligible. Here we have psychological presuppositions applied as tests to certain facts, the very procedure against which we are warned at the outset. The author deals next with the commands of Jesus regarding secrecy. He postulates a common explanation for all the separate instances. Of course he'is aware of the usual solution of the problem, namely the desire of Jesus to avoid all political complications or any course which might appeal to the national hopes of the multitude. We can find nothing unsatisfactory in this hypothesis. The chief objection Wrede brings against it is the behaviour of Jesus on His last entry into Jerusalem. Why does He then allow Himself quietly "to be made the object of a Messianic ovation?" (p. 40). Surely it is obvious that by this time there was a complete revolution in popular feeling. He could readily judge by the signs of the times that there was not the slightest probability of a national up-rising in His favour. A further support for his theory is found by Wrede in the parabolic teaching of Jesus. Here he rests his case on the admittedly difficult utterance of our Lord in Mark iv. 12. But is not this quotation from Isaiah used by Jesus in the spirit of the prophet, feeling poignantly that his most zealous efforts to instruct his fellow-countrymen in the spiritual truths of the kingdom of God would often be in vain, and hence, in his grief because of failure, representing himself as sent to make ears deaf and eyes blind? But Wrede concludes from this passage that Mark "separates between an esoteric and an exoteric teaching of Jesus". "The expression παραβολή is for Mark entirely equivalent to enigma" (p. 55). He rejects the only credible explanation of the words, "Unto you is

given the mystery of the kingdom of God," which is, of course, that the disciples by their adherence to Jesus had already proved that some understanding of the nature of the kingdom had been given them. This explanation is corroborated by ver. 25: "He that hath, to him shall be given," etc. Wrede holds that Mark concluded from the parabolic form of the teaching of Jesus that He intended to communicate something mysterious (p. 60). Surely he forgets that to a man of Jewish descent, instruction by means of parables was no novel phenomenon. On the hypothesis that Mark regards the parables as vehicles of esoteric doctrine, he assails the historicity of the book as a whole, inasmuch as this view of the evangelist's proves how little he understood the historical life and teaching of Jesus.

We have no space to follow in any detail the remaining sections of the discussion. There is an elaborate examination of the predictions of Jesus regarding His sufferings, death and resurrection, which aims at showing that these also were regarded by Mark, from his theological standpoint, as belonging to the secret of the Messiah which the disciples failed to understand (pp. 81-101). In no part of the book is there a more arbitrary handling of the narrative to suit an artificial theory. A notable instance is the treatment of viii. 32 ff., where Peter rebukes his Master for the announcement of His death. Wrede admits that the scene is life-like. but the fact that Peter seems, in one sense to understand the words of Jesus, and yet, in another, to fail in grasping them, to have a mind for the things of men $(\phi \rho \rho \nu \epsilon \hat{\imath} \nu \tau \hat{\alpha} \tau \hat{\omega} \nu \hat{\alpha} \nu \theta \rho \hat{\omega} \pi \omega \nu)$, and not for the things of God, is enough to stamp the incident as a product of Mark's reflection. A verdict like this is surely most significant in its bearing on the author's power of estimating a spiritual situation.

We have confined ourselves in this notice to the first division of the book, that dealing with Mark. The second division briefly examines Matthew, Luke, and John in the light of the hypothesis which we have described. The third contains an attempt to grasp the idea of the concealed Messiahship in its historical setting. The following quotation from this closing

section is typical of the whole discussion, as revealing the author's curious lack of sympathy with the inner side of the historical development unfolded in the Gospels. "An essential difficulty for the assumption that Jesus proclaimed Himself as the Messiah lies in the fact that one cannot easily specify what He meant by it. If the thought of a Messianic proclamation in the political, patriotic-revolutionary sense is excluded, what then is the meaning of the Messianic claim?" Characteristic for the situation is the answer which Wellhausen has given. Jesus put aside all Jewish conceptions of Messiah. He directed His hope and longings "toward another ideal of a higher order. Only in this sense can He have named Himself the Messiah: they were to look for no other. He was not the Messiah whom they desired, but He was the true Messiah whom they ought to desire." "I confess," says Wrede, "that I cannot form any conception of this. A Jewish man who lives and works in the midst of his people substitutes for the firmly established idea of Messiah something which does away with all its peculiar characteristics, he transforms a theocratic-eschatological notion into one which belongs to spiritual religion, such as was foreign to any Jew" (p. 220). An investigator who stands so far apart from the central things of the Christian revelation as these words would indicate ought surely to occupy himself with a more congenial subject than the life of Jesus.

H. A. A. KENNEDY.

Predigten.

Von Dr. Friedrich Loofs, ordentlichem Professor der Kirchengeschichte an der Universität Halle. Zweite Reihe. Halle a. S.: Max Niemeyer. Pp. viii. + 316. Price M.3.

Dr. Loofs' second volume of sermons will receive a hearty welcome from all who are familiar with his writings. They are "academic" inasmuch as they were, for the most part, preached from the Halle University pulpit, but even when the students of the University are directly addressed we hear the voice of the pastor rather than of the professor. Difficulties are never shirked, but there are no detailed discussions of critical questions to remind his audience of the lecture-room. The preacher is far more anxious to put his youthful hearers on their guard against spiritual perils than to suggest a solution of the problems which disturb the schools.

The first of the thirty sermons was preached at the funeral of the author's father, and strikes the keynote of the volume: "This world and all that is in the world cannot give rest to a restless soul that feels its sin. . . . This Saviour, full of grace, is not Himself a part of this poor, sinful, fleeting world, but the Lord from heaven, sent by the Father into the world that He may raise us, poor sinners, from this fleeting world to the living, holy and eternal God." It is because the studies of Dr. Loofs-a foremost representative of the critical school -have not robbed him of "The Sinner's Saviour," that he can preach from I Tim. i. 15 at the burial of his father-an esteemed village pastor of the older Lutheran school. Is not the son right in maintaining earnestly that the reconciliation of theologians now ranged in opposing camps would be hastened, if those who belong to the different groups would take heed to the advice which his father gave him, when he

left home for the university: "In times of doubt, hold fast to this—'I am a sinner and need a Saviour,'—and you will always find your way back to the right path"?

A special characteristic of these sermons is the absence of any prejudice against the supernatural combined with the most unhesitating recognition of the rights of criticism. Those who find a stumbling-block in the miracles of the Gospels are told that the words of Jesus and not His wonderful works are of chief importance; nevertheless, the old dilemma is confidently re-stated: either Jesus Christ rose from the dead or our faith is vain. "The old gospel-the gospel of the Apostles, the gospel of the Reformationstands or falls with the resurrection of the Lord." In his treatment of this fundamental article of the Christian faith Dr. Loofs is quite independent of, and surely more scientific than Dr. Harnack, to whom he has often acknowledged great indebtedness and of whom he often reminds us in his fervour of spirit and grace of style. He has an open mind for all suggestions which aim at distinguishing the words of the Lord from the words of the Evangelists, but he is more conscious than many critics of the difficulty of separating the kernel from the husk. "The Gospel is God's message to men, the history is a narrative of the biblical writers. . . . We can draw a distinction between the Gospel and the history, but we cannot separate them. For the Gospel itself is glad tidings of what God has done for our salvation."

As studies in homiletics these sermons deserve attention. Dr. Loofs displays great skill in relating different themes to one central principle, his divisions are often exceedingly happy, whilst his illustrations are numerous and always apposite. The Gospel for the 10th Sunday after Trinity (Luke xix. 41-48) suggested to older writers an earnest call to repentance, but it furnishes to Dr. Loofs a suitable topic for an appeal on behalf of the work of deaconesses. The three pictures—Jesus weeping over Jerusalem, Jesus driving the traders out of the temple, Jesus persecuted by the high priests and scribes—set before us three different classes who were alike in their refusal to allow Jesus to help them. The

theme, therefore, is "Love that would help resisted," and the three divisions show that for such love there is (1) a time for weeping, (2) a time for reproving, and (3) a time for suffering. In all these ways deaconesses are called to imitate their Lord.

To many readers the apt poetic quotations will prove an additional charm. Paul Gerhardt is most frequently drawn upon, but Philipp Spitta, Rückert and other less-known authors are represented, some of the most telling extracts being taken from the "Poems of Carl von Fircks" now out of print.

J. G. TASKER.

Bible Characters-Stephen to Timothy.

By Alexander Whyte, D.D. Oliphant, Anderson & Ferrier, 1901.

THOUGH the title of this volume indicates that many Bible characters, from Stephen to Timothy, are dealt with, it is pre-eminently Dr. Whyte's manifesto on Paul. Of the 204 pages in the book upwards of 160 are devoted to the Apostle of the Gentiles. Paul as a student, Paul as apprehended of Christ Jesus, Paul in Arabia, Paul's visit to Jerusalem to see Peter, Paul as a preacher, Paul as a pastor, Paul as a controversialist, Paul as a man of prayer, Paul as a believing man, Paul as the chief of sinners. The thorn in Paul's flesh, Paul as sold under sin, Paul's blamelessness as a minister, Paul as an evangelical mystic, Paul's great heaviness and continual sorrow of heart, Paul the aged. It is worth any man's while to read Dr. Whyte on themes like these. The preaching is all so characteristic, so strong, so sympathetic, so broad, so intense and searching, so wholesome. It may be questioned whether Dr. Whyte has ever done anything better than this singularly fine "appreciation" of Paul. And the style is so strenuous. I doubt if Dr. Whyte's style, for its clearness, its nervous energy, its manifest roots in all great English classics, has ever had full justice done to it. He writes supremely as the preacher, and his sermons bear translation to the page of print without the alteration of a word, successfully. This, and his Newman taken together, constitute a rare contribution to Pauline literature. Of course Dr. Whyte here, as everywhere, shows the defects of his qualities. There is emphasis which becomes exaggeration, yet no man would dare to question the preacher's utter sincerity. And, while one would not make too much of it, Dr. Whyte's preaching has gained unspeakably from his recent devotion to Paul. It has become more objective. The morbid anatomy has been restrained.

The Gospel which Paul called "my Gospel" has never been more powerfully presented. In the chapter on "Paul as a Preacher," there is a passage which reads like a confession. He is speaking of "that greatest of all Paul's doctrines of grace". And he asks, "Why was that blessed doctrine so long in being preached by some right divine to me? Why was I, myself, so long in learning and in preaching this first principle of the doctrine of Christ?" No one, save Dr. Whyte himself, would have thought of accusing him of any neglect of truth which is so distinctively Pauline as pardon through God's free grace. Yet this confession has been treated as if the minister of St. George's were entering on a new era in his ministry. One must not forget Dr. Whyte's large style, and the way in which a thought possesses him for the moment to the exclusion of every other. The chapters on Paul's ministry are admirable beyond all praise. Who but Dr. Whyte could speak so finely about Paul as a controversialist? The entire Church is indebted to him for this beyond most of his former "appreciations". It is his most characteristic book.

DAVID PURVES.

- I. Studien über das Schrifttum und die Theologie des Athanasius auf Grund einer Echtheitsuntersuchung von Athanasius contra gentes und de incarnatione.
- Von Karl Hoss. Freiburg i. B., Leipzig und Tübingen: J. C. B. Mohr; London: Williams & Norgate, 1899. 8vo, pp. viii. + 130.

Athanasiana: Litterar- und Dogmengeschichtliche Untersuchungen.

- Von Alfred Stülcken, Pastor in Lübeck. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; London: Williams & Norgate, 1899. [Texte und Untersuchungen, N. F. iv., 4.] 8vo, pp. viii. + 150. Price 5s. net.
- Die Kirchenrechtsquellen des Patriarchats Alexandrien. Zusammengestellt und zum Teil übersetzt.
- Von Lic. Theol. Wilhelm Riedel, Privatdocent an der Universität Kiel. Leipzig: A. Deichert, 1900. 8vo, pp. iv. + 310. Price 7s.
- 3. Die Pfaff'schen Irenaeus-Fragmente als Fälschungen Pfaffs nachgewiesen, U.S.A.
- Von Adolf Harnack. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs, 1900; Edinburgh and London: Williams & Norgate. 8vo, pp. 148. Price 5s.
- 4. Titus Von Bostra: Studien zu dessen Lukashomilien.
- Von Joseph Sickenberger, Dr. Theol. Lcipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. 8vo, pp. viii. + 267. Price 8s. 6d.
- I. In both of these excellent discussions the critical investigations of Dräseke with reference to the genuineness of certain works which have been attributed to Athanasius of

Alexandria are dealt with in a very thorough and satisfactory way. The main conclusions reached by both scholars agree. Draseke's destructive criticism is shown to be excessive and indiscriminate. The most valuable positive result is a convincing demonstration of the genuineness of contra gentes and de incarnatione. The importance of having the Athanasian authorship of these treatises put beyond question will be admitted by all students of Patristic theology.

Both Hoss and Stülcken are agreed in rejecting the Expositio fidei, the Epistola ad Antiochenos and the Sermo major de fide as spurious. Both agree that they are of Antiochean origin, and that none of them can have appeared much earlier than A.D. 400, a full generation after the death of Athanasius. The spuriousness of the so-called Fourth Discourse against the Arians and the two books against Apollinarius is also proved convincingly by both. As to the De Incarnatione et contra Arianos, Hoss thinks that he can prove it spurious, while Stülcken thinks he can only describe it as dubious, but as certainly belonging to the Fourth Century.

The summing up of Hoss as to the result of the discussion, with regard to the literary history of Athanasius, will suitably describe Stülcken's results as well. While Athanasius gains possession of some literary works which were doubtful before, he loses some that were confidently ascribed to him; but what remains to him as a sure possession is amply sufficient to enable us to form a picture of his personality, his significance as a party leader, as a theologian, and as a writer, and this picture has the advantage over earlier portraits that it is clearer and more consistent. In both these treatises, but especially in that of Stulcken, we have very valuable discussions on the doctrinal, and particularly the christological, views of Athanasius. The discussions as to the genuineness of the writings ascribed to Athanasius are intended to prepare the way for the determining of the characteristic doctrines of this notable champion of the Nicene faith, which he had done so much to formulate.

2. While large attention has been given to the Christian literature in the Syrian, and even in the Ethiopic and Coptic languages, little has been done in the way of bringing into notice the stores of similar literature in the Arabic language. The Syrian and Ethiopian Didaskalia, the Syrian and Ethiopian Canons of the Apostles, have been published, but not the Arabian versions of these works. One reason for this is that the Syrian, Ethiopian and Coptic literature is purely Christian, beginning only with the Christian era, and as such has attracted the attention of Christian scholars: whereas the Arabian literature is partly Mohammedan, and the study of Arabic has been closely associated with that of Islam. Herr Riedel has done an important service to historical, and especially to literary historical, theology, by his collection and translation of early Christian documents as they appear in Arabic versions. These renderings came to be made in the Egyptian Church after the Coptic Church had lost its political significance, and when the supremacy of the Arabs had been established throughout the land. The Theological Encyclopædia of Abū'l Barakāt, with an account and summary of which the collection opens, shows that this old Christian Arabian literature embraced all departments of theology, translations of commentaries on Holy Scripture, legends of the Apostles, a Martyrology or Synaxarion, Church histories, and various dogmatic, liturgical and legal works. It is with documents referring especially to Church law and constitution that the present work deals. In the first part, embracing §§ 3-17, pp. 89-155, we have translations and summaries of certain collections of canons, such as those of Macarius and of the Malakites, Jacobites and Maronites. In the second part, §§ 18-55, pp. 155-310, we have the particular list of canons given in the previously described collections, partly arranged according to the subjects dealt with, partly in chronological order-Apostolic pieces, Canons of Synods recognised by the Greeks down to the Synod of Ephesus, then Canons of Greek Fathers down to Severus of Antioch. Next are given such canons as cannot with confidence be ascribed to any particular author, but are not of

later origin than the end of the tenth century (§§ 41-45), and finally, the Canons of the Alexandrian patriarchate in the times of the Kalifate down to Cyril III. in 1243 (§§ 46-52). The editor suggests that a knowledge of this literature will prove useful to those English, American and German Protestant missionaries who are now working in Egypt, by giving them a clue to many of the peculiar views of the Copts.

3. This is one of the volumes of the well-known *Texte und Untersuchungen*, and as such is the third part of the fifth volume of the new series. The first sixty-nine pages are occupied with the story of the Fragments published by Pfaff as portions of the writings of Irenæus, and then about eighty pages are given to miscellaneous notes on various passages in Patristic documents.

The tract on Pfaff is interesting and easily read. It gives a clearaccount of the publication of these remarkable Fragments by Pfaff in 1715 and of the controversy that immediately arose as to their genuineness. This controversy Harnack shows is not properly settled yet. The question has occupied the attention of all the most eminent Patristic scholars of the day-Bryennius, Harnack, Zahn, Loofs, Funk-and in one or other direction they all come to different results. According to some all, according to others some, of the Fragments are ungenuine. According to some the doctrinal teaching is Alexandrian, according to others Antiochean, and according to others Asiatic (of Asia Minor). Harnack gives a full text of the Fragments, with notes of parallels, as indicating possible or probable sources. This is followed by a critical examination of the contents of the Fragments. They are not, as some have supposed, of separate origin and authorship, they contain much that is in the style of Irenæus and calculated to suggest him as the writer, but careful investigation brings out statements and views which make it impossible that Irenæus could have written them. The author assumes the Pauline authorship of Hebrews as Irenæus did not. He makes up his paragraphs of centos of

New Testament passages, whereas Irenæus is distinguished for the careful manner in which he makes his quotations. He assumes the present New Testament with the Epistles of James, Jude, Hebrew, 2 Peter, as only an Alexandrian could have done before the fourth century. Hence Harnack concludes that not only are the Fragments not writings of Irenæus, but also that Irenæus' name did not come by accident to be associated with them, but that they are forgeries. The suggestion that the forgery might have been a semi-bonå fide one by an Alexandrian Christian of the third century is discredited by the impossibility of assigning any motive for such proceeding.

A careful examination of the Fragments with Pfaff's notes awakened in Harnack the suspicion that they were a fabrication of Pfaff himself. Certainly Pfaff's own conduct does not impress one favourably. No one but himself ever saw the manuscripts, no one had ever heard of them, the original transcripts of the documents with their contexts were never shown to any. Even the Catalogue of Manuscripts in the Turin Library which he is said to have possessed, and which should have contained these Fragments, has never been produced. But apart from these suspicious circumstances, Harnack finds internal evidence in favour of the Pfaffian origin of these paragraphs. He shows in detail, for example, how theological statements in these pretended Irenæan writings have been coloured by controversies and modes of thought prevalent in Pfaff's days, and in a way favourable to the views of Pfaff and his party. A large number of words and phrases, modes of thought, modes of expression, are such as no Greek could ever have used. By a careful examination of the Fragments in detail, this indictment is proved. Harnack concludes with a sketch of Pfaff's career in order to show that he was just the sort of man likely to commit such an offence in order to gain fame. A young man of three and twenty, ambitious in the highest degree, and, though inclined to Pietism and Unionism, yet distinctly "worldly," a tempting opportunity presented itself to him when he obtained access to a library like that of Turin supposed to be rich in manuscript treasures of which nobody knew anything. Altogether the outward history of the man gives occasion for suspicions which confirm the damaging conclusions reached from a study of the documents themselves. There can be little doubt that Harnack is right in characterising the Fragments, not only as forgeries, but as the compositions of Pfaff.

4. This work, which had originally appeared in the Roman Catholic Quartalschrift für Christliche Alterthumskunde, is now issued as one of the parts of Von Gebhardt's and Harnack's Texte und Untersuchungen (N. F. vi., 1). The first part deals with critical questions with reference to the works, and especially the exegetical works, of Titus. It opens with a few pages of biography in which is gathered together all that is known of Titus as bishop and writer from 360 to 378, followed by a summary account of his controversial treatise against the Manichæans. In his Apologetical-polemical work he shows himself pre-eminently a scripture exegete, so much so that a reader of his Anti-Manichæan treatise might confidently expect to find him also the author of commentaries or homilies on holy scripture. As a matter of fact, many fragments of such a work are extant. In chap. iii. (pp. 16-41) a very full account is given of the manuscripts and fortunes of the Pseudo-Titus commentary on Luke, of which a Latin translation was published in 1580 and the Greek text in 1624. It is found to be a compilation of the sixth century, mostly from Cyril of Alexandria, but partly also from Titus himself, Origen, Chrysostom, etc. The fact of this commentary having been so widely ascribed to Titus shows how high his reputation as an exegete must have been; and, indeed, it so happens that the various Catenæ on the Gospel of Luke contain many fragments from the bishop of Bostra. These fragments are discussed in detail, and their genuineness examined in two important chapters of the work before us (pp. 41-108). Our author concludes that the fragments in these Catenæ are mostly genuine, and that the Luke-homilies from which they are taken are the work of Titus. Practical

applications, too, are found in these homilies, as represented by extant fragments, against Manichæism, just such as we might expect from Titus, and which form interesting parallels with passages in his controversial work.

In the second part of the work (pp. 140-249) we have all the Fragments carefully gathered and sifted, and a critical text formed out of what is approved as genuine. The whole treatise is a model of careful editing of cautious and scholarly criticism. A word of praise should also be given to the very full and accurate indices of subjects, manuscripts and Scripture passages, which greatly add to the convenience and usefulness of the volume.

JOHN MACPHERSON.

The Church and its Social Mission.

By John Marshall Lang, D.D., Principal of the University of Aberdeen. Edinburgh and London: William Blackwood & Sons, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. xx. + 364. Price 6s. net.

This volume contains the series of six addresses delivered as the Baird Lecture of the Church of Scotland for 1902. The lecture form, however, is wisely abandoned and the matter is distributed over a series of fifteen chapters. The subject selected is opportune, and the author is in sympathy with the social trend of the thought and the activities of the present day. The book is written, therefore, with the force and warmth that come from a living and hearty interest in the great questions brought under review. It is also clear and popular in its style, and takes us pleasantly and profitably over a very extensive field crowded with matters long and largely debated.

The volume falls into two main divisions occupied respectively and in the main with the past and with the present. The first part, consisting of seven of the fifteen chapters, goes back to our Lord's teaching and the view of the Church and her vocation embodied in it, and proceeds to trace the course taken by the Church in the fulfilment of her mission from the earliest times down to the latter half of the nineteenth century. The second part addresses itself to the condition of things under which we ourselves live, the grave and intricate problems which confront us in every department of our social existence, the answers of very different kinds that have been given them, the various remedies which are offered for the ills of society, and the contribution which the Church has made or ought to make to the settlement of these questions and the cure of these maladies. There is much good and helpful matter in both divisions of the book. The first part leads naturally up to the second and the interest comes to a point there.

Dr. Lang looks at things from the standpoint of a loyal son of the Church established by law in Scotland and a firm believer in the utility of State Churches generally. But he takes no narrow view of what the Church is. He takes the word "Church" in its least controversial sense, comprehending under it, with Richard Hooker, "Every such politic society of men as did and doth in religion hold that truth which is proper to Christianity". He reviews the history of the spiritual society or Church as thus defined in its aggressive social action. He touches here on a multitude of questions the collectivism of the primitive Christian community, the contact of Christianity with the Roman Empire, the cause of the persecutions, the position and the achievements of the Church at the period of the Edict of Constantine, its religious and social condition at the beginning of the tenth century, the state of things in the Dark Ages, the climax of the Papacy, the work of the religious orders, the abuse of Monasticism, the awakening of Europe, etc. A brief, but vivid account is also given of the work of the Church of Scotland in particular, the catholicity of the Scottish Reformation, the great ideas contained in the Second Book of Discipline, and the action of the Scottish Church on social life from her first efforts as a Protestant Church till now.

The second part is remarkable for the large body of facts on which its argument proceeds. These are gathered from many different sources, and deal with the wealth of the country, the magnitude of the pauper population, the statistics of Mr. C. Booth, the charity organisations, the prevalence of intemperance, the housing of the poor, the experiments of Dr. Chalmers in Glasgow, the Bread and Chartist Riots, etc. A very good sketch is given of the various forms of socialism, and the socialistic movement as a whole is criticised in a very forcible way in respect both of its theoretical basis and the results it has yielded so far as it has been tried.

The book concludes with a clear and telling statement of what the Church is called to do and how her ministry is to

be made effectual in relation to the complex life and accumulating problems of modern society. The closing note is one of hope. The book will be found well worth reading. It is an informing book all through. For the Christian man, and especially for the Christian worker, it has its encouragements as well as its warnings.

S. D. F. SALMOND.

Contentio Veritatis: Essays on Constructive Theology.

By Six Oxford Tutors. London: John Murray, 1902. 8vo, pp. ix. + 311. Price 12s. net.

This is an important book and one that has much significance. The ability with which it is written is by no means the only thing that commends it to attention. Its great interest lies in the theology which it outlines as the form of Christian thought which will hold the future, and which alone deserves the name of a Constructive Theology suitable to the mental atmosphere in which men now live. In this it is another indication of the changes through which all things are passing, and of the deep and far-reaching effects resulting in the world of religion and faith from the vast transformation of ideas in the world of science, philosophy and history. The essays are the composition of Oxford men, and it is but a little while since Oxford men were conservatives par excellence among theologians. Twenty years ago this volume would have created some sensation. Forty years ago it would have set the heather on fire. Now it will be received with equanimity, and perhaps with less attention even than it deserves. It is not a phenomenon like the Essays and Reviews. It will not even provoke the excitement stirred by Lux Mundi. Yet it is a book that demands serious consideration, and that ought to make an impression not only by the programme which it outlines, but by the qualities of gravity, sincerity, breadth of view, intellectual power, courage and sympathy which distinguish it in almost equal measure.

The essays differ in length. The shorter of them are not the least able. The essay on "The Church," e.g., by Mr. Carlyle, is one of the most candid and scholarly, and contains much in moderate compass. The essay by Mr. Wild, the Vice-Principal of St. Edmund Hall, on the "Teaching

of Christ," has no special note of distinction, and seems to us to be the least adequate of the series. It gives disproportionate space to the consideration of preliminary questions, and has nothing very original to say. At the same time there is much in it that is informing. The paper on "The Sacraments" by Mr. Inge has several points of interest. For one thing it gives a series of parallels to the Christian Eucharist which are produced from the history and usages of non-Christian races. One wonders, however, at the uncritical readiness with which some of the statements are received. There is another paper by the same hand, on the important subject of the "Person of Christ". It is a competent and fair discussion, looking at things from the Ritschlian view-point, or one not easy to distinguish from that. It reviews the course of opinion on this question of questions, and meets the objections, philosophical and scientific, raised against the possibility of an Incarnation. It concludes that the Humanitarian theories fail, and that "belief in the Divinity of the historical Christ is still an essential part of Christianity". The grounds on which this conclusion is founded are these: the consideration that if Christ did not claim to be the Son of God in a sense peculiar to Himself, the Gospels are made untrustworthy, and the real Jesus is lost to us irrecoverably; the impossibility of consenting to the surrender of His sinlessness; the integral place which His voluntary humiliation has in Christianity, and the connexion in which His most distinctive teaching stands with His personal claims. This is all well put.

The essays by Mr. Burney on "The Permanent Religious Value of the Old Testament," and Mr. Allen on "Modern Criticism and the New Testament," are opportune and helpful contributions. There is nothing very exciting or out of the way in them. But they give excellent summaries of results, and show in a clear and convincing way how a just criticism cannot take from the spiritual worth of Scripture, but will make it more certain, and bring it home more clearly to the intelligence. These are essays which

ought to relieve perplexed minds and encourage faith. The most outstanding essay is the opening one by Dr. Rashdall on "The Ultimate Basis of Theism". It is a congenial subject, and Dr. Rashdall handles it in a conspicuously able fashion. He unfolds the idealistic argument for Theism at some length, analysing it and exhibiting the idea of God which it sustains—the idea of a God for whom the world exists, but not of a Creator by whom it is made. He deals next with the argument for Causality, showing for what it is valid and how it supplements the other. Meeting the objections usually urged at this point, he goes on to show how reason leads us to a conception of God which is in harmony with Christ's teaching and with the doctrine of the Trinity. There are many things in this very able essay that will carry assent and stimulate thought, though there are also some things that are left somewhat uncertain. It is a candid and critical re-statement of the idealistic argument, with additions and adjustments. It deals in a very capable way with the question of the Personality of the First Cause, and shows how the idea of a Personal God makes the idea of an Incarnation possible.

On some questions of fundamental importance the volume stops short of what we believe to be the necessary issue. The question of miracles is somewhat indeterminately dealt with: but the moral miracle of Christ's sinlessness has a central place, and it is admitted that there may be abnormal degrees of such mental control of natural processes as is seen in every act of will. Another matter of vital moment which seems to be left in some doubt is the value to be attached to the historical character of Christianity and in especial to its historical foundations. The mystical or the intuitional seems to be more than the historical to Mr. Inge. But with whatever measure of reserve or dissent some of the positions advocated may be taken, the book itself is meant to make for faith, a reasonable and enlightened faith, and it should be judged in the light of its obvious and praiseworthy purpose.

A Dictionary of the Bible.

Dealing with its Language, Literature and Contents including the Biblical Theology. Edited by James Hastings, M.A., D.D., with the assistance of John A. Selbie, M.A., D.D.; and, chiefly in the Revision of the Proofs, of A. B. Davidson, D.D., LL.D., Litt.D., Professor of Hebrew, New College, Edinburgh; S. R. Driver, D.D., Litt.D., Regius Professor of Hebrew, Oxford; H. B. Swete, D.D., Litt.D., Regius Professor of Divinity, Cambridge. Vol. iv. Pleroma-Zuzim. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1902. Pp. xi. + 994. Price 28s.

Encyclopædia Biblica.

A Critical Dictionary of the Literary, Political and Religious History, the Archæology, Geography and Natural History of the Bible. Edited by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne, D.Litt., D.D., Oriel Professor of the Interpretation of Holy Scripture at Oxford, and formerly Fellow of Balliol College, Canon of Rochester; and J. Sutherland Black, M.A., LL.D., formerly Assistant Editor of the "Encyclopædia Britannica". Vol. iii. L. to P. London: Adam & Charles Black, 1902. Pp. xv. + columns 2689-3988. Price 20s. net.

ALL students of the Bible will receive these two volumes with thankfulness. In the case of the second their sense of indebtedness will be tempered, it is true, by other feelings. But in both volumes there is so great a wealth of useful matter that readers of all kinds will find what meets their needs, and specialists in many different lines of inquiry, however strong their dissent from some things may be, will discover in both books much that will at once satisfy them and help them. Further experience of the two dictionaries deepens the impression that the first named is by far the

better and more reliable guide and comes much nearer the idea of what a Bible Dictionary should be. The unhappy peculiarities and ineptitudes which so largely diminished the value of the Encyclopædia Biblica in its former issues obtrude themselves again in this third volume. There is no abatement of the tendency to disappoint us where we want solid fact and the materials for forming our own judgment of things, and to put us off with a multitude of private opinions and thin speculations which have little or no basis in fact, but are in most cases flimsy and sometimes flippant. This, we are glad to say, does not hold true of the Encyclopædia as a whole. It is confined to a certain class of articles and to three or four writers. But there is vastly too much of it, and an examination of this new volume only sharpens the feeling of regret that it is there at all, and that it is there in such measure as to damage very seriously the scientific character of the work.

The publishers of the *Dictionary of the Bible*, the editor, the assistant-editor and the scholars (one of whom, alas! is no more with us) who have given efficient help in counsel and in revision, are to be cordially congratulated on the completion of an undertaking of such magnitude. A supplementary volume is in preparation in which a place will be found for additions, not a few of them of great importance, which suggested themselves as desirable during the progress of the work. But the original scheme has now been overtaken, and the work in that sense is finished. It has been carried out with distinguished ability, unfailing skill, sound judgment, and admirable fidelity to the programme presented to the public when the announcement of the publication was first made.

There are many important articles in this concluding volume of the *Dictionary*, more indeed than we can deal with in any adequate way. The one which will probably be recognised to be the weightiest of all is that on "Prophecy and Prophets". It is by the late Professor A. B. Davidson, whose lamented decease means so great a loss to scholarship and so heavy a sorrow to many friends. This article shows the master-hand

in every paragraph, and makes a contribution of quite unusual value. Other Old Testament topics are handled by different scholars with conspicuous ability. It would be difficult to point to any treatise on the "Psalms" that will match the article by Professor Davison of Handsworth for concise, comprehensive statement and judicious use of the critical faculty. With regard to the question of the authorship of the Psalms, especially those assigned by tradition to David himself, Professor Davison agrees neither with the extremists who deny the Davidic origin of almost all the Psalms, nor with those who claim as many as forty-four for the King. His conclusion is that from ten to twenty, hardly more and possibly less, may be by David himself. Among these he would reckon iii., iv., vii., viii., xv., xviii., xxiii., xxiv., xxxii., and possibly ci., cx. As to Maccabean Psalms he thinks the number cannot be large, but that some such Psalms, e.g., xliv., lxxiv., lxxix., lxxxiii., may have found a place in the Psalter before the Canon was closed. Professor Kennedy's articles on the "Tabernacle" and "Weights and Measures" are noticeable for the great mass of information, gathered from many different quarters, which they furnish, and for the independent way in which the questions are dealt with that are raised with reference to the historical character of the priestly narrative by the silence of the pre-exilic historical books. Count Baudissin's article on "Priests and Levites," Professor Strack's on the "Text of the Old Testament," Professor Bacher's on "Sanhedrin" and "Synagogue," Canon Driver's on the "Confusion of Tongues," Professor Nestle's on the "Septuagint," are all of high quality, and others might easily be named.

The New Testament books are also well handled, e.g., those on the Epistles to the "Thessalonians," to "Timothy," and to "Titus," by Professor Locke, "Romans," by Principal Robertson, and especially "Revelation," by Professor F. C. Porter of Yale. The "Text of the New Testament" has been committed to the hand of Professor Nestle. It deals with the subject at considerable length, and with all the ability one expects from Dr. Nestle, though with an occasional tendency to theorise.

A considerable place is wisely given to matters of Biblical theology. Among the best examples of the kind of treatment proper to such subjects in a *Dictionary*, we may instance the papers on "Propitiation," by Canon Driver, "Predestination," by Professor Warfield, "Psychology," by Professor Laidlaw, "Regeneration," by Professor Bartlet, "Sacrifice," by Professor Paterson (a comprehensive and well-considered statement of the relevant data and the interpretations put upon them), "Salvation, Saviour," by Professor Adams Brown (a full and very instructive paper), etc. Here, too, special attention should be directed to the papers on "Son of God" by Canon Sanday, and "Son of Man" by Canon Driver, than which there is nothing better in the whole volume and nothing more satisfactory elsewhere on these subjects.

Not the least notable contributions to our knowledge will be found in some of the historical articles, especially one by Professor Gwatkin on the "Roman Empire". Nor should we omit to refer to such masterly papers on topics of a different kind as those on "Writing" by Dr. Kenyon, and "Zoroastrianism" by Mr. Moulton. But enough has been said to show that this volume is quite on a level with the former three in interest and in ability, and to warrant us to express the opinion that the book is likely to rank for long as our most valuable Bible Dictionary.

The Encyclopædia Biblica also contains many notable and useful articles. There is perhaps none better than that on "Names," an elaborate treatment of the subject under the different headings of Personal Names, Place Names, Divine Names, with detailed discussions on the structure of names, their meaning, their history, the phenomena of borrowed names, etc. It is the joint production of Professors Nöldeke, Buchanan Gray, Kautzsch and Cheyne. The book of "Leviticus" is dealt with by the very competent hand of President Moore of Andover, who also writes ably on "Numbers," "Nature Worship," and "Philistines". The book of "Proverbs" is handled by the late Professor Toy of Harvard, instructively but with little insight. There are excellent articles on the "Nile" by Professor W. M. Müller; the

"Parables" by Professor Jülicher; "Moab" by Professors G. A. Smith, Wellhausen and Cheyne; "Mesopotamia" by Professor Socin and Dr. Winckler; "Palestine" by Messrs. Socin, W. M. Müller, H. H. W. Pearson and A. E. Shipley (a very thorough and adequate article); "Persia" by Professors Tiele and F. Brown; "Passover," "Pentecost," etc., by Professor Benzinger; "Poetical Literature" by Professor Duhm.

The late Professor Robertson Smith is represented by articles on such books as "Obadiah," "Lamentations," "Psalms," "Malachi," and on such subjects as "Nazarite," "Levites," "Messiah," "Priest," "Proselyte". These articles are edited and supplemented by different hands. Of their worth it is not necessary to speak. It is more in point to notice the sobriety, the caution and the careful regard to the quantity and quality of presentable facts which make them stand out in striking contrast with a great deal that they are associated with in this volume.

When we turn to a certain class of articles, those subscribed, e.g., by Professor Cheyne, Schmiedel, Usener and van Manen, we are indeed in a different atmosphere. We get into the land of marvels, where the conjuror dwells and waves his wand. His touch brings Paul to the vanishing point, and bids his Epistles be gone, dissolving even the great "quadrilateral" that Baur held impregnable. "With respect to the canonical Pauline Epistles," we are told, "the later criticism here under consideration has learned to recognise that they are none of them by Paul; neither fourteen, nor thirteen, nor nine or ten, nor seven or eight, nor yet even the four so long 'universally' regarded as unassailable. They are all, without distinction, pseudepigraphia." Here is a sweeping and selfassured pronouncement. On what grounds is it made? On such as these-that in Romans ix,-xi, the rejection of Israel is dealt with "in a manner that cannot be thought to have been possible before the fall of the Jewish State in 70 A.D."—a wholly mistaken conception of the real tenor of the statement. Or because "we never come upon any trace in tradition of the impression which the supposed letters of

Paul may have made-though, of course, each of them must, if genuine, have produced its own impression upon the Christians at Rome, at Corinth, in Galatia". But what of Clement of Rome and the use of I Corinthians, to mention only one thing? Or again because we can infer from the contents of these epistles that their writers and readers "live in the midst of problems which-most of them at all eventswhen carefully considered, are seen not to belong to the first twenty or thirty years after the death of Jesus". But what reason is there for asserting that such difficulties as those about the rise of the Sabbath, the continuing obligation of circumcision, the eating of meats offered in idol temples, and the like, could not have arisen so early as the years 50-65 A.D.? Are not these the difficulties most certain to have arisen at the very earliest period? And what becomes of the Pauline Epistles on van Manen's theory? Is it more reasonable to take such a letter as that to the Galatians for what it seems prima facie to be--a letter coming straight from the heart of the man, instinct with his determination to vindicate his mission, throbbing as it surely does with the sense of a strong individuality, or to take it for a composition elaborately put together long after Paul's death and sent abroad under his name with a view to certain theological or ecclesiastical objects? But there is little to be got by trying to follow the fancies of extremists of this type. We wish it were possible to say that this is a case that stands by itself. But it is far from being so. There is indeed worse than this. There are things in the articles on "Mary" and the "Nativity" which it is a pain to read. There are also some poor and inadequate articles, such as the one by Dr. Orello Cone on the Epistles of Peter. And there is also King Charles's head. Our good friends Jerahmeel and the Jerahmeelites are always cropping up, and a place is made for them in the most extraordinary quarters by the help of smart conjecture and fine cutting and carving on the text. To meet them once or twice may be diverting. To have them so often pressed on our notice is fair neither to them nor to us. Let us get away from their scenic forms to something plainer and more substantial.

S. D. F. SALMOND.

Notices.

THE May issue of the Revue Néo-scolastique, published by the Philosophical Society of Louvain under the direction of D. Mercier, contains informing articles on these subjects among others: Aristotle's idea of the soul and its faculties (by Clodius Piat), the Neo-Thomist Movement, etc., together with a long list of careful book-reviews.

In the Methodist Review for May-June we notice the opening paper by President Bashford of the Ohio Wesleyan University on "Prophecy," and an article on the "Origin of the Semitic Alphabet," by Professor W. M. Patton of Yale. There are readable papers also of a different kind, on "Wordsworth," by Dr. James Mudge, "Victor Hugo," by Professor Wilker, and "Robert Louis Stevenson," by Professor E. Mims.

New Testament scholars will read with interest the estimate of the "Literary Work of Joseph Henry Thayer," by Professor C. J. H. Ropes, in the April issue of the American Journal of Theology.

The third part of the third volume of the *Teologisk Tidsskrift* contains an important article by Professor C. H. Scharling on "Luther's Theology," on the basis of Köstlin's work.

In the April issue of the Journal of Theological Studies the Rev. G. H. Box writes on "The Jewish Antecedents of the Eucharist". He finds "the true Jewish Antecedent" not in the Passover but in the Kiddûsh. The Rev. C. H. Turner has an elaborate discussion of "The Genuineness of the Sardican Canons". He grants that Zosimus and Innocent neither had the instincts of scholars themselves nor consulted scholars before they used the documents. But he concludes that the evidence of history is against the supposition that the Canons were forgeries or that the title given them was meant to deceive.

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In the May-June issue of the Revue d'Histoire et de Littérature Religieuses we have continuations of two important studies—the one by Jérome Labourt on "Christianity in the Persian Empire," and the other by Joseph Turmel on "Augustine's Doctrine of Original Sin".

The Church Quarterly Review usually makes good reading. The April issue contains the continuation of an interesting paper on "English Coronations". The New Education Bill is discussed from the Church side, with a very imperfect apprehension of its defects and injustices. There are some extraordinary statements in a paper on "Some Tendencies of Modern Nonconformity," as, for example, that the publication of Professor Bruce's article in the Encyclopadia Biblica "proves how adequately the up-to-date Presbyterian enunciates the Unitarianism of twenty years ago". It is pleasant to set over against ignorant bursts of this sort the careful paper on the newly discovered fragments of Ecclesiasticus, in which the writer pronounces it premature to come to a positive conclusion, but suggests that "much that is set down to imitation may be only part of the common stock of the language, and that the presence of late forms and phrases may often have to be explained as due to glossators and interpolators".

In the third issue of the Revue de Théologie et des Questions Religieuses for 1902 M. Neel concludes his series on "Les Conceptions actuelles de Royaume de Dieu," and C. Bruston contributes a good paper on Suetonius and the Book of Acts—"Le Témoignage de Suétone et le récit du livre des Actes".

We call special attention to an important paper by Professor Basil L. Gildersleeve in the American Journal of Philology, vol. xxiii., I, on "Problems in Greek Syntax". It sums up the results of the studies of many years on the use of the copula, the moods and tenses, the prepositions, the cases, the employment of the Absolute, etc. It contains much that is of moment.

We have also to notice another instalment of W. Muss-Arnolt's Concise Dictionary of the Assyrian Language (Assyrian

-English-German), bringing this important and well-conconceived contribution to our knowledge of the ancient tongue down to Sīmtu; a short and interesting sketch of the career of Francis E. Clark,2 the founder of the Young People's Society of Christian Endeavour, by W. Knight Chaplin; Religions of Bible Lands,3 by D. S. Margoliouth, M.A., Laudian Professor of Arabic, Oxford, an addition to the series of Christian Study Manuals edited by the Rev. R. E. Welsh, a volume giving in very concise form a useful outline of the knowledge we now have of the Semitic Religions, the Religion of Egypt, and that of Persia: The Creed of an Evangelical Churchman, 4 by the Rev. H. Laurence Phillips, curate of St. Paul's Greenwich, a careful unpretentious statement in popular terms of the fundamental doctrines of the evangelical creed, showing considerable acquaintance with the literature of the subject, both ancient and modern; Ein Original-Dokument aus der Diokletianischen Christenverfolgung,5 an admirable and very acceptable publication which we owe to Professor Adolf Deissmann of Heidelberg, giving the text (together with full information about the history of the document and some acute suggestions as to the readings) of the interesting papyrus which preserves the letter of the presbyter Psenosiris to the presbyter Apollon his "beloved brother in the Lord"; Ephcsians, Colossians, Philemon, and Philippians, edited by G. Currie Martin, M.A., B.D., another volume of The Century Bible, done with care and skill,6 one of the best of the series, giving brief, useful notes, touching on the main points of interest as far as the limits permit, and finding space also for concise and scholarly statements of the more important questions relating to the

¹ Part 12. Berlin: Reuther u. Reichard; London: Williams & Norgate. Pp. 705-768. Price 5s. net.

² London: Andrew Melrose. Pp. 115. Price 1s. net.

³ London: Hodder & Stoughton. Pp. viii. + 132. Price 1s. net.

⁴ London: Elliot Stock. Cr. 8vo, pp. vii. + 168. Price 5s.

⁶ Tübingen u. Leipzig: J. C. B. Mohr; London: Williams & Norgate. 8vo, pp. 36. Price 1s. 6d. net.

^{*}Edinburgh: T. C. & E. C. Jack. Pp. viii. + 192. Price 2s. net, cloth; 3s. net, leather.

origin and literary history of the writings; Religio Laici,1 by the Rev. H. C. Beeching, M.A., Professor of Pastoral Theology at King's College, London, a series of studies addressed to laymen, lively and popular in their style, discussing a wide variety of subjects from "Christianity and Stoicism" (a very fair sketch) and "Isaak Walton's Life of Donne" to "Fallacies in the Ritual Controversy" (a somewhat boisterous performance) and the "Church and Elementary Education," all very readable, and containing some good remarks, but seldom penetrating beneath the surface of the questions in hand; Notes Introductory to the Study of the Clementine Recognitions,2 a valuable course of lectures by the late Dr. F. J. A. Hort, edited by Dr. J. O. F. Murray of Emmanuel College, giving the results of careful and prolonged consideration of the difficult questions presented by these writings, furnishing an admirable summary of the doctrine of the Recognitions, and working out with great force the lines of evidence leading to the conclusion that the Clementine literature is of comparatively late date—the work of a Syrian Helxaite about A.D. 200; Patristic Study,3 by Henry Barclay Swete, D.D., Litt.D., Regius Professor of Divinity in the University of Cambridge-one of the volumes of the "Handbooks for the Clergy" series, giving in concise and attractive form much useful information about the Fathers, both early and Post-Nicene, which should quicken interest in their work and place the student in the proper position for appreciating their writings; The Development of Doctrine from the Early Middle Ages to the Reformation, by Professor J. S. Banks, a continuation of the studies begun in the author's Development of Doctrine in the Early Church, carrying on the history from Gregory the Great to Calvin and the Counter-Reformation, a good handbook, fitted to be of much use to students, scholarly, appreciative, carefully arranged, and

¹ London: Smith Elder & Co. Cr. 8vo, pp. viii. + 270. Price 6s.

² London: Macmillan & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xii. + 158. Price 4s. 6d. ³ London: Longmans, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. xi. + 194. Price 2s. 6d. net.

⁴London: C. H. Kelly, 1901. Small cr. 8vo, pp. vii.+266. Price 2s. 6d.

presenting the main points at each stage of the doctrinal process; Lex-Loci, Social and Religious Life in the Highlands,1 by the Rev. Kenneth Macdonald, Applecross, a sketch of the condition of things in the Scottish Highlands from the earliest times to the present day, with special reference to recent religious movements—a book full of shrewd and racy observation, humorous and acute, explaining much that seems strange to a Lowlander, the work of a Highlander who is both appreciative and critical of Highlanders; The Meaning of Homoousios in the "Constantinopolitan" Creed,2 an acute and learned essay by J. F. Bethune-Baker, B.D., containing some important discussions on the history of the terms substantia, persona and others, but directed specially and with much ability against the theory projected by Zahn and Harnack and accepted too readily by Gwatkin, Loofs, and others, that a new meaning was read into the Nicene terms by an assumed "new Nicene" party, the result being that while the word Homoousios was retained it was understood in the sense of Homoiousios, a theory so unlikely in itself as to require for its establishment much more convincing reasons than have yet been produced; Purgatory, the State of the Faithful Departed, Invocation of Saints 3-a series of three lectures by Dr. A. J. Mason, which it is a delight to read both for their felicitous style and for their admirable spirit, making much more indeed of the intermediate state than in our judgment is justified by the New Testament, and open to objection in their interpretations of some important passages both of Scripture and of the Patristic writings (especially Clement), but generally sober in their conclusions, valuable for the historical matter which they present, and written from the standpoint of one who holds by the Anglican position

¹ Edinburgh: R. W. Hunter, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. 319.

² Texts and Studies. Contributions to Biblical and Patristic Literature, edited by J. Armitage Robinson, D.D. Vol. vii., No. 1. Cambridge: University Press, 1901. 8vo, pp. vii. +83. Price 3s. net.

⁸ By Arthur James Mason, D.D., Lady Margaret's Reader on Divinity at Cambridge. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xvii.+170. Price 3s. 6d. net.

that no traditional doctrine or practice has a claim on our allegiance unless it can be shown to "represent the teaching of the Apostles and to have been received as such in the early and undivided Church"; The Elements of Christian Doctrine, 1 by T. A. Lacey, M.A., Vicar of Madingley-a volume giving a statement of "those fundamental truths which underlie theology as the facts of nature underlie the natural sciences." but including also not a little of theology and dogma in the stricter sense of the terms, containing much good and useful matter, keeping, however, in large measure within the limits of ancient authority, giving no evidence of sufficient acquaintance with modern theology outside the Anglican range, and constructed on the basis of the High Anglican view of the Church and the Sacraments; F. H. R. v. Frank's Gotteslehre? -a contribution offered by Dr. Friederich K. E. Weber to the history of the philosophy of religion in the nineteenth century, and giving a careful statement of the main points of the late Professor Frank of Erlangen's doctrine of God and the presuppositions of that doctrine-a welcome guide to the study (by no means an easy thing) of the theological system of a great Lutheran master; ()rdination Addresses,3 by the Right Rev. William Stubbs, D.D., late Lord Bishop of Oxford-a memorial volume of great interest, carefully edited by Mr. E. E. Holmes, Vicar of Sonning, formerly domestic chaplain to the Bishop of Oxford, discourses full of strong practical sense and deep thinking, distinguished by a large tolerance and a keen sense of the fitness of things. always forcible and sometimes pungent in style, in which much is wisely said on the Church, Scripture, the Diaconate, self-dedication, and kindred subjects.

London: Rivingtons, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xvi. + 318. Price 5s. net.

² Leipzig: Deichert, 1901. 8vo, pp. xv. +76. Price M.1.60.

³ London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. vi. +337. Price 6s. net.

Record of Select Literature.

I.—OLD TESTAMENT.

- Delitzsch, F. Babel und Bibel. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs' Verl. 8vo, pp. 52. Mit 50 Abbildgn. M.2.
- Dornstetter, P. Abraham. Studien üb. die Anfänge des hebr. Volkes. (Biblische Studien. Hrsg. v. O. Bardenhewer. VII. Bd. 1-3 Hft.) Freiburg i. B.: Herder. 8vo, pp. xi. + 279. M.6.
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- Prestel, J. Die Baugeschichte des jüdischen Heiligsthums u. der Tempel Salomons. Mit 7 Tafeln auf 2 Blätter. (Zur Kunstgeschichte des Auslandes.) Strassburg: J. H. E. Heitz. Lex. 8, pp. viii. + 56. M.4.50.
- KRIEGER, H. Das Leiden des Gerechten im Buche Hiob u. im Lichte des Neuen Testaments, Progr. Leipzig: Buchh. G. Fock. 8vo, pp. 34. M.o.8o.
- HOLZHEY, C. Die Bücher Ezra u. Nehemia. Untersuchungen ihres litterar u. geschichtl. Charakters. (Studien zur alttestamentlichen Einleitung u. Geschichte. 2 Hft.) München: J. J. Lentner. 8vo, pp. 68. M.I.8o.
- ENGERT, Th. Der betende Gerechte der Psalmen. Historisch-krit. Untersuchg, als Beitrag zu e. Einleitg, in den Psalter. Würzburg: Göbel & Scherer. 8vo, pp. iv. + 134. M.2.
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RECORD OF SELECT LITERATURE

Recent Work in Egyptology and Assyriology.

The work of excavation is being pushed forward so rapidly in Egypt, Babylonia and other parts of the ancient Oriental world that it is somewhat difficult to keep pace with it. New and ever more startling results are constantly being announced, discovery treads on the heels of discovery, and the past history of civilised man is being disclosed to us in a way of which we little dreamed but a few years ago. The most striking result has been to re-establish the credit of the traditions which had come down to us from the past. Culture has been proved to be of vast antiquity, and the literary age of mankind has been thrown back for unnumbered centuries. Literary civilisation is immensely old—this is the main conclusion to which archæological research has led us; and literary civilisation implies contemporaneous annals and a trustworthy historical record.

In Egypt, Professor Flinders Petrie has completed his work at the royal tombs of the First Dynasty at Abydos, and has occupied the past winter in excavating on the site of the temple of Osiris, which may have been founded before the age of Menes. In the three volumes published by the Egypt Exploration Fund (The Royal Tombs of the First Dynasty at Abydos, part i., 1898-99; The Royal Tombs of the Earliest Dynasties, part ii., 1900-01; Abydos, part i., 1902) a detailed account of the work at the tombs is given, illustrated with photographs and drawings of the multitudinous objects found in them. Kings whose very existence had been questioned turn out to have been not only living monarchs of flesh and blood, but to have flourished in an age of high artistic and literary culture, when Egypt was already as fully organised and its civilisation as fully advanced as it was in the days of the Fourth Dynasty. The hieroglyphic system of writing, with its ideographs, its syllabic characters and its alphabet, was already complete, and a cursive hand had even been developed out of it. When the united monarchy of Upper and Lower Egypt was founded by Menes, Egyptian culture was already old.

The tombs explored by Professor Petrie belong for the most part to the kings of the First and Second Dynasties. Some of the identifications of the royal names proposed by him have recently been disputed by Professor Naville (in the Recueil de Travaux relatifs à la Philologie et à l'Archéologie égyptiennes et assyriennes, xxiv., pp. 105-117) upon philological grounds; it must be remembered, however, that Professor Petrie's arguments are chiefly archæological, and we are at last beginning to learn that historical conclusions cannot be drawn from philology, the province of which lies elsewhere. Those who like myself have been present at the excavations at Hieraconpolis and El-Kab can feel no doubt that Professor Petrie is right in placing Pharaohs like "Nar-mer" before Menes, and archæology equally forces us to see in the royal tomb discovered by M. de Morgan at Nagada the sepulchre of Menes himself. Professor Naville has changed his reasons for rejecting the reading of the name of Menes proposed simultaneously by Professor Maspero and Dr. Borchardt, but his new arguments against it are as unsatisfactory as his old ones even from a purely philological point of view. No archæologist can avoid agreeing with Professor Petrie in placing the Nagada tomb immediately before those of the First Dynasty at Abydos. Its architecture and the objects discovered in it alike prove the fact.

But it is not only the historical age of Menes and his successors which has been lighted up by the results of recent excavation; the prehistoric age of Egypt has also been so fully made known to us that Professor Petrie has succeeded in dividing it into periods distinguished by special forms of art and burial. In *Diospolis Parva* (London, 1901), where an account is given of the excavations conducted by him for the Egypt Exploration Fund in the neighbourhood of Hû, a provisional attempt is made to establish a chronology of the "prehistoric" age by the aid of the pottery and stone vases

that have been disinterred in the neolithic cemeteries of the country. Even the ivories, flint implements and slate "palettes" are found to fall into groups characteristic of the several periods to which the different classes of pottery belong. Once introduced, a type naturally lasted into later stages of development and was only slowly superseded by other forms of art. Counting back from the period of the First Dynasty to that of the earliest neolithic graves, Professor Petrie obtains five well-marked stages or periods numbered 30 to 80 in his scale of "sequence-dates". If we assume an average of four centuries for each of these periods, the oldest "prehistoric" interments would reach back some two thousand years before the time when Menes united the two kingdoms of Upper and Lower Egypt under one rule. What relation was borne by the neolithic to the dynastic Egyptian is still uncertain. Certain German scholars maintain that the civilisation of dynastic Egypt developed naturally out of that of the neolithic population. For my own part I believe that the native traditions were right in making the dynastic Egyptians a race of conquerors who brought with them a higher culture and a knowledge of the use of metals and were thus enabled to reduce the native tribes to a state of serfdom. Anthropology has shown that there were at least two races in Egypt, the amalgamation of which produced the Egyptian of history.

There is much to be said in favour of the theory which brings the dynastic Egyptians from Babylonia. Indeed there is one fact which seems practically decisive. This is the use of the seal-cylinder and of clay as a writing material in the early days of the monarchy. Both were out of place in Egypt, which is a land of stone, while the loamy soil, mixed as it is with sand, is eminently unsuitable for writing purposes. Babylonia, on the other hand, was the natural home of the cylinder and the clay tablet. It was a land without stone, where every pebble was precious, and where therefore the gem-cutter's art was cultivated from the first. It was, moreover, an alluvial plain the tenacious clay of which readily received an impression and retained it permanently after the clay was dry. The writing materials that were unnatural in Egypt were thus natural and obvious in Babylonia, and accordingly while they disappeared in Egypt before the close of the Old Empire they lasted in Babylonia down to the age of the Arsacid kings.

The Asiatic origin of the civilisation of dynastic Egypt becomes important in view of another fact that is being impressed upon us by archæological research. Egyptian culture, or rather the culture of dynastic Egypt, seems to have no beginning. The art and industries of the Egypt of Menes were as highly advanced as those of the Egypt of Cheops. We find no trace of the beginnings of its system of writing or even of the political and civil organisation of the country. As far back as excavation can carry us, dynastic Egypt is still the Egypt with which our museums have made us familiar. Indeed in some respects the further back we go the higher and more developed its art appears to be, the architecture is more grandiose, the bas-reliefs are more carefully finished, the statuary more lifelike and realistic. The hardest stones are carved into statues of exquisite perfection, and the delicate beauty of the jewellery discovered by Professor Petrie in what he regards as the tomb of the son and successor of Menes is worthy of imitation to-day. Egyptian art and culture seem to spring full-grown into existence like Athena from the head of Zeus.

An illustration of the fact has been afforded by the German excavations last winter at Abusir. Here, midway between Giza and Saqqara, they have found the remains of the temple attached to the pyramid of User-n-Ra of the Fifth Dynasty. The temple was built on a colossal scale and paved with huge blocks of black basalt. The walls were covered with bas-reliefs, the workmanship of which is equal to that of the finest products of the Twelfth Dynasty, while rows of granite columns supported the roof on either side. The columns were carved into the form of groups of four papyri tied together; the form has been made familiar to Egyptian travellers by the temple of Luxor, and has hitherto been supposed to be an invention of the Eighteenth Dynasty. The

supposition, however, turns out to have been due merely to the imperfection of the architectural record, and like most of the negative conclusions of Egyptology to have been the result of our own ignorance. In the days of the Fifth Dynasty the papyriform column had already attained its full development.

Are we, then, to look to Babylonia for the first essays of civilised man; to that plain of Shinar, in fact, where the book of Genesis and Babylonian tradition placed the earliest cradle of post-diluvian culture? The Americans who have been working for so many years on the site of Nippur in Northern Babylonia are inclined to answer in the affirmative. If their conclusions can be established, Babylonian civilisation can be traced back to a far earlier epoch than that of dynastic Egypt, and what is more important the earlier and ruder forms out of which the later culture grew, indiscoverable as they are in the valley of the Nile, can be pointed out in Babylonia. The proof of the conclusion is twofold. On the one side it is based on the development of Babylonian art and writing as represented at Nippur; on the other side on the depth of the débris that has accumulated on the site of the great temple of Bel. Midway in the mound of ruins is a platform of bricks stamped with the names of Sargon and his son Naram-Sin, whose date according to Nabonidos was 3,200 years before his own time, that is to say, about B.C. 3800. Below the platform the excavators had to remove nine and a half metres of ruins before they reached the foundations of the temple, while above the platform the period ending with the Christian era was represented by eleven metres. As the débris had to be levelled before the brick platform was laid, the American explorers do not seem to be far wrong in estimating that the first builders of the sanctuary lived as much as seven or eight thousand years ago. And even at this remote period the pictorial hieroglyphs out of which the cuneiform characters developed were already assuming their later hieratic or cursive form.

In my forthcoming Gifford Lectures I have given reasons for believing that Nippur was one of the two religious centres from which radiated the primitive culture of Babylonia. The other centre was Eridu, once the sea-port of the country, but left an inland town by the retreat of the Persian Gulf at least six millennia ago. While the darker side of Babylonian religion emanated from Nippur, its brighter and more humanised side was due to the influence of Eridu. The god of Eridu was the culture-god of Babylonia, and to him was ascribed the elements of art and science and the invention of writing. As he was a god of the water, it may be concluded that maritime trade and intercourse with other peoples had much to do with the development of Babylonian civilisation.

At Nippur a library, calculated to contain 250,000 clay tablets or books, has been discovered, which according to Professor Hilprecht was destroyed and buried underground at the time of the Elamite invasion in the age of Abraham. So far as the tablets have as yet been examined, they appear to relate to all the branches of learning that were studied at the time, and we may expect from them historical revelations of considerable importance. But the work of copying and translating them will necessarily be a long one.

Another library, of more than 30,000 tablets, has been found at Tello, the ancient Lagas, by the French excavator M. de Sarzec, whose untimely death last year is a grievous loss to science. The Tello tablets, however, consist for the most part of deeds and similar legal documents, inventories of goods, and stewards' accounts. Among them are plans of houses and estates, but little of a directly historical nature. But they throw a good deal of light on the social and economical history of Babylonia about B.C. 2700, the period to which most of them belong, and the dates attached to many of them are valuable for chronological purposes.

It is from the ancient Elam, however, that our chief historical surprise has come. Here M. de Morgan, the late Director of the Department of Antiquities in Egypt, has been working systematically at the mounds of Susa, and disinterring the remains of the city that stood there before the days of Cyrus and Darius. The results of his work are embodied in the Mémoires de la Délégation en Perse (Paris, Leroux, 1900-1), of

which three volumes have appeared and three more are promised. The two volumes containing the inscriptions found by the excavator have been ably edited by Dr. Scheil. It turns out that Susa was originally a Babylonian city, governed by a satrap who owned allegiance to the imperial Babylonian government. It was not till a comparatively late epoch, when the Babylonian power was beginning to decay, that non-Semitic princes from Anzan gained possession of Susa and its territory and founded the kingdom of Elam. Babylonia, however, continued to claim suzerainty over its old province, and from time to time when Babylonia was in the hands of a strong ruler the claim was made good. Thus monuments have been found there of Khammurabi or Ammurapi, called Amraphel in the book of Genesis, as well as of several kings of the later Kassite dynasty. The ethnographical table in the tenth chapter of Genesis is right, after all, in making Elam a son of Shem.

While the Americans have been exploring Nippur and the French have been disinterring Tello and Susa, the Germans have also entered the field of excavation. Their principal work has been on the site of Babylon. Here they have discovered the palace of Nebuchadrezzar, which proves to be represented by the mound of El-Qasr "the Palace," as well as the great street along which the religious processions made their way to the temple of the god. The street was raised and paved with blocks of stone, bordered on either side by walls of glazed tiles on which lions and rosettes were painted. The Persian kings are thus shown to have only followed a Babylonian model in adorning their palaces with encaustic tiles. The explorers claim further to have discovered £-Sagila, the temple of Bel-Merodach, in the tel of 'Amrân ibn-'Ali to the south of El-Qasr. Dr. von Bissing, however, in a recent communication to the Allgemeine Zeitung (27th June, 1902), has given reasons for questioning the claim until it can be substantiated by monumental evidence: the inscriptions of Nebuchadrezzar seem to place the great sanctuary of Bel to the north rather than to the south of the palace, and nothing has as yet been found which obliges us to identify the mound of 'Amrân with its site. In another group of mounds, usually known as Jumjuma, from which the famous tablets of the Egibi "banking-firm" were obtained, some four hundred tablets have been disinterred, one of which contains a litany in Sumerian and Semitic Babylonian which was chanted by the priests in honour of Merodach on the 11th day of Nisan when the image of the god was transferred from Borsippa to Babylon. In the same spot a temple of Nin-ip has been brought to light, with a long record of its restoration by Nabopolassar shortly after his successful revolt from Assyria. In this he describes himself as the "son of a nobody," "the little one who was not regarded among the people". Jumjuma represents the quarter of Babylon called Su-anna. While still continuing their work at Babylon, the German expedition is now preparing to extend its excavations to Abû Hatab and Fâra in Southern Babylonia. A new American expedition, moreover, under Dr. Banks, is about to attack the ruins of Kutha at Tell Ibrâhîm.

The work of excavation, in which England once took a leading part, has thus been handed over to other nations. English scholars have to content themselves with the results of French, American and German discovery, or with fresh gleanings from the rich harvest of tablets which have been brought to the British Museum in former years. While Professor Harper in America is going on steadily with the publication of his Assyrian Letters from the library of Nineveh, an English Assyriologist, the Rev. C. H. W. Johns, has been bringing out a truly monumental work on Assyrian Deeds and Documents (3 vols.; Cambridge: Deighton Bell & Co., 1898-1901). The work has been executed with a conscientious thoroughness which will prevent its ever being done a second time; it is difficult to find any point arising out of the texts, most of which are here published for the first time, which is not fully discussed. The texts naturally throw a large amount of light on the commercial and economical history of Assyria in the eighth and seventh centuries B.C. Assyrian law differed in many respects from Babylonian law, and Mr. Johns is doubtless right in

believing that the documents with which he deals do not record private transactions like the majority of similar documents from Babylonia but are connected with the affairs of the royal household. In spite of this, however, they are invaluable for a study of Assyrian law, more especially so far as it related to trading matters, as well as for the chronology of the period to which they belong and the social conditions of the people. Incidentally they cast light also on such subjects as the geography of the Assyrian empire or the proper names of both Assyrians and foreigners. Thus Raman appears in several proper names as the title of a god, proving that the Assyrian Air-god might be called Raman as well as Hadad (cf. Zech. xii. 11), and there is a long series of names like Au-bihdi, Au-yanu, Au-idri which make it plain that Au was the name of a divinity. Auidri (Au-ezer) indicates that the divinity was Syrian, which is borne out by names like Au-Â "Au is Â" parallel to Nusku-Â "Nusku is Â". Au-bihdi so closely resembles the name of the Hamathite king Yau-bihdi as to suggest that Au is but another form of Yau in which scholars have long ago agreed to recognise the Biblical Yahveh. Many of the names found in the tablets are of Syrian or Mesopotamian origin, and Mr. Johns has been enabled by means of them to enrich the Syrian pantheon with the gods Azuzi, Khimuni, Kububi and Sikhur. One interesting document contains the two names Tarkhu-KHAL and Nakhiri which irresistibly remind us of Terah and Nahor, and make it probable that in Terah we have to see the name of the Hittite deity Tarkhu. Imâni-ilu, the Hebrew Immanuel, is also a name which should not be overlooked.

Still more striking are the references to the sacrifice of children by fire. It is one of the penalties denounced upon the violator of a contract, from which we may infer that it was an ancient custom which had passed away from ordinary use and was remembered only as a terror to evil-doers. actual expression is: "he shall burn his eldest son," "he shall burn his eldest daughter," to "such and such a divinity". In one instance it is added that the daughter shall be burnt

"with two homers of sweet-smelling herbs". In another case the place of the verb "to burn" is taken by the verb "to bind," a euphemism similar to the Biblical one of "passing through" the fire. The goddess to whom the child was devoted was usually "the goddess of the desert".

Another fact to be gathered from the tablets examined by Mr. Johns is that while the 7th, 14th, 21st and 28th days of the month "do not show any marked abstinence from secular business," the reverse is the case with the 19th day, at the end of the seventh week from the first of the preceding month. The rest of the seventh-day Sabbath, therefore, cannot have been strictly enforced in commercial circles, at all events in the age of the second Assyrian empire.

Such are a few out of the many results for which we are indebted to Mr. Johns' publication of the Assyrian legal documents. Those who wish to know what light they throw on Assyrian metrology and official life must turn to his exhaustive chapters on those subjects. It is seldom that the reader feels inclined to differ from his conclusions. Ramku, however, is rather "the pourer out" of libations than "the sprinkled," and I should slightly modify Mr. Johns' translation of the technical term 'sartu by giving it the signification of "loss". The word arnê (or arranê) which he mentions as occurring in lists of furniture is "chests".

The progress of excavation and research is gradually bringing the whole of the ancient Oriental world within the circle and influence of early Babylonian and Egyptian culture. The marvellous discoveries made by Dr. Evans and the Italian explorers in the "Mykenæan" palaces of Knossos and Phæstos have shown that in the centuries immediately preceding the Mosaic age Krete was a centre of highly developed art and civilisation. The traditions of Heroic Greece have been proved to have had more than a foundation in fact. The culture of classical Hellas turns out to have been little more than a Renaissance like that of the fifteenth century in Europe. It was no sudden up-growth of spontaneous generation; there were not only heroes before Agamemnon, but sculptors and artists before Pheidias and

writing before the introduction of the Phœnician alphabet. Some of the engraved gems found at Knossos are equal to the best products of the gem-cutter's art of classical Greece. We now know also the source of that realistic art which has puzzled the Egyptologist at Tel el-Amarna: the elements of culture which had been given by Egypt to the islands and coasts of the future Greek world came back to the land of their birth in a new and developed shape. One of the most interesting discoveries made by Dr. Evans, however, was among the ruins of the earlier palace of Knossos above which the later "palace of Minos" was built. Here he found the alabaster lid of an Egyptian vase on which were inscribed the names of the Hyksos Pharaoh Khian or Iannas. As a lion bearing the cartouches of the same king has been discovered in Babylonia we may form some idea of the extent of Hyksos power and influence. Close to the alabaster lid the excavators disinterred a seal-cylinder of lapis-lazuli on which Babylonian art is seen passing into what is known as its Hittite phase. But for this and other details the reader must go to Dr. Evans's account of his last year's work in the Annual of the British School at Athens for 1900-1 (vol. vii.).

Professor Orsi's excavations have brought Mykenæan pottery to light in Sicily, and thus verified the legends which connected Minos with that island. Dr. de Cara's two learned and elaborate volumes, Gli Hethei-Pelasgi, ii. and iii. (Rome, 1902), take up this side of the question and essay to show by the help of recent archæological research how the culture of Babylonia and Egypt made its way through Asia Minor and "Mykenæan" Greece to the distant West. The author marshals his facts skilfully and is thoroughly acquainted with the latest results of archæological discovery. He has made it clear that Italy once shared in the civilisation of the "Mykenæan" age and that the old traditions which described its connexion with Greece and the East were based on historical facts. Opinions may differ as to whether he has proved his contention that the Pelasgi of Greek story were the Hittites of Asia Minor and that in these "Hittite-Pelasgians" we must see the race which

brought oriental culture to the prehistoric west. A serious difficulty in the way of the theory is that the age and character of the "Mykenæan" civilisation are widely separated from those of the primitive "Bronze" civilisation of Western Europe, and that it is therefore necessary to assume the existence of two streams of "Hittite-Pelasgian" emigration, one contemporary with the Bronze age and the other with the Mykenæan. But the fact remains that archæology has now proved the extension of "Mykenæan" influences to Italy, if not to Spain, while it is becoming more and more evident that the introduction of the Bronze culture with its practice of burning the dead was coeval with the appearance of a new race upon the scene. The Hittite-Pelasgians of de Cara correspond with the "Alpine" race of Sergi, the brachycephalic "Celts" of the British and French anthropologists.

In Palestine also the excavations of the Palestine Exploration Fund have brought to light "Mykenæan" remains at Tell es-Sâfî. This indeed is only what we should expect if Tell es-Sâfî is the site of Gath, as is usually supposed. Perhaps, however, the most interesting fact revealed by an examination of the pre-Israelitish pottery of Southern Palestine is the close resemblance of so much of it to the pottery found by M. Chantre among the ruins of the Hittite capitals of Boghaz Keui and Eyuk in Cappadocia. Dr. Belck, the most recent explorer of the latter sites, would assign the date of it to B.C. 2000-1500. The work just begun by Mr. Macalister on the site of Gezer will doubtless cast further light on this and kindred questions. Already the excavations conducted last spring by the Austrian expedition under Dr. Sellin on the site of Taanach have revealed the existence of "pre-Amorite" pottery, proving that the spot was occupied in what were probably neolithic days. If the pottery which characterises the Amorite age of Palestine was brought into the country by the Amorite race these days must have been remote. When Sargon of Akkad made Canaan a province of his empire in B.C. 3800 it was already known to the Babylonians as "the land of the Amorites ".

The Crown of Science the Incarnation of God in Mankind.

By A. Morris Stewart, M.A. London: Andrew Melrose, 16
Pilgrim Street, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. xiii. + 221. Price
3s. 6d. net.

THE author of these studies describes them in his Preface as "an attempt to indicate how one among the many seekers after unity of thought balances the two sides of his religious equation and relates his religious beliefs with those large ideas which are abroad in the secular thought of to-day" (p. x.). Mr. Stewart has familiarised himself with the ideas which modern science, physical and mental, has brought to the front; and by the help of these he succeeds in presenting Christian truth under fresh aspects, and in illustrating strikingly the unity of thought and life that pervades nature and revelation alike. The book is brightly and vividly written, and is interesting and thoughtful throughout. There is a tendency, indeed, observable in all such books, to translate religious ideas into the language of science under the idea that fresh light is thereby thrown on religious truth. But we do not gain much light on the nature of religion by being told that "it establishes nerve connexion between the individual and the centre" (p. 49). Nor are we made to see further into the mystery of evil when we think of it "in its secret beginnings in that suborganic stage, in which it opposes God in the rhythm of the impulses that come from the Will" (p. 25). And when we are assured that the "key to Instinct is the passivity with which it receives its quota of omniscence" (p. 35), we do not seem to be much further on in the understanding of that mysterious faculty. Such things as these occur here and there in the book, but they do not lessen our appreciation of the vigour and freshness of the thinking and of the valuable contribution it makes to our knowledge of the subjects of which it treats.

Mr. Stewart's book reminds us a good deal of the work of the late Professor Drummond. He has approached Christianity through much the same discipline of mind. There is the same desire to find in the Christian scheme a further unfolding of ideas that science teaches, and the same aptness in presenting the truths of religion as the solution of problems that are raised by scientific thought. In the following passage many will detect an echo of a favourite thought of Drummond's: "The message of the Christ to-day is, that the Power of the Spirit of God is in the world, and is the present force which impels Humanity along the predestined path of its upward Evolution. Perhaps the Christian world, which seems to have moved far from its old place and attitude of Penitence for sin is just making ready for a new sense of need of the power of God, and a new understanding of its methods, and a new appreciation of its gift" (p. 117). In illustration of this he refers in his interesting chapter on the "New Heredity" to the dominance in the modern mind of the conception of Inevitable law, that may become the basis of a new sense of need of the Power of the Christ that "meets men in that level of their nature where habit rules" (p. 122).

In his suggestive chapter on the "Familiar Spirit of God," the author makes a happy use of that conception of a sub-liminal region of the mind on which modern psychology insists, the idea that there are "layers in our mental and moral character, and while we are only conscious of the topmost ones, others which are underneath may be a true part of ourself, even while we are not aware of them" (p. 106). He applies this view to the explanation of the whole subject of spirit-possession in the New Testament, and in particular to the doctrine of the Holy Spirit, in a way that will be found helpful.

The chapter entitled "The Higher Biology" is of special interest. In it he brings the modern views on cell-life into relation with St. Paul's doctrine of the Church as an organism. "If the apostle," he says, "had had the acquaintance of modern biology, with cells and protozoans, he would have seen the place of the individual Christian in the body of Christ as corresponding to that of the minute cell which is at the foundation of the human frame; living with the life of God, informed by His wisdom for humble but necessary tasks, surrendering independence of individuality in order to subserve the interests of the whole" (p. 153).

From what has been said it will appear that we have here a book thoroughly modern in its spirit and scope, a book that is not only interesting but most profitable reading. There is not a dull sentence in it, and it will be found most helpful to those who feel, as the author does, the intellectual necessity for correlating the ideas of science with the facts and truths of the spiritual life.

D. Somerville.

The Evolution of the English Bible. By W. H. Hoare, late of Balliol College, Oxford. Second Edition, Revised and Corrected throughout, and including Bibliography, with Portraits and Specimen Pages from Old Bibles. London: John Murray, 1902. Large Cr. 8vo, pp. 368. Price 7s. 6d. net.

Mr. H. W. Hoare, late of Balliol College, Oxford, gives us a volume on The Evolution of the English Bible. It is described as "an historical sketch of the successive Versions from 1382 to 1885". It is admirably printed, and is furnished also with some very good portraits and specimen pages from old Bibles. As frontispiece we have a striking portrait of John Wycliffe from an engraving by C. White. The book does not profess to be a critical history. It is a sketch of the story of the English Bible, giving in modest limits a general account of the various versions of our national Bible "with their historical setting". It endeavours at the same time so to "bring the history of the versions into relation with the main current of events as to associate the story of the national Bible with the story of the national life". The writer follows in the main Westcott and Eadie, and has succeeded in producing a very readable book that should meet a want long felt. In a series of well constructed chapters, he deals in succession with Mediæval England and the Bible, The Bible and Scholasticism, Wycliffe and the Bibles of the Fourteenth Century, William Tyndale and his Work, the Coverdale, Matthew, and Great Bibles, the Genevan, Bishops' and Douai Bibles, the Authorised Version, and the work of Revision. The whole is preceded by a very useful Chronological Table which gives the various events with their dates from the founding of Iona by St. Columba in 563 to the death of Shakespeare in 1616. A tabular view of the evolution of our English Bible is also given on a separate page.

Mr. Hoare's idea is an excellent one-to deal with the

story of our Bible as an integral part of our national history. He works out this idea, too, in a way that is generally interesting and effective. His sketches of men like Wycliffe, Coverdale, Tyndale, as well as of Biscop, Bede and others are well done. The same may be said of the brief accounts which he gives of the Lindisfarne Gospels, the Rushworth Gospels, the old prose Psalters, the Roman Catholic "Douai Bible," the Rheims-Douai New Testament, etc. He makes also some good remarks on the over-refinements of the Revised Version as well as on its conspicuous merits. He can also speak justly and appreciatively of Calvin, "the Saviour of Geneva," as Geneva was "the Saviour of the Reformation": and of the small city-state in which, as he expresses it, "men saw the visible and active embodiment of a conviction which lay deep down in many a thoughtful mind; the conviction that there might subsist a political community without the Empire, and a Church of Christ without the Papacy".

On the other hand Mr. Hoare occasionally travels into regions not quite familiar to him. This is the case with parts of the chapter on Mediæval England, with what is said of Scholasticism; and with some occasional statements on the earlier translations. The Psalter, e.g., which is described as by William of Shoreham, cannot now be so certainly attributed to that hand. Mr. Hoare also lets his style sometimes run away with him and become almost turgid. These, however, are comparatively small faults. The book is written with a real enthusiasm for the subject. It brings together a considerable mass of interesting matter, and it sets it out in a telling, instructive, and popular manner. Those into whose hands it comes-and we hope these will be many-will have their interest in the story of the English Bible deepened, and their appreciation of what it has been to the English people heightened. The volume has reached its second edition in a very short time, and in this revised issue it should be more welcome and more useful.

The Twenticth Century New Testament. A Translation into Modern English made from the Original Greek. London: Horace Marshall & Son; New York and Chicago: The Fleming H. Revell Company, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xiv. + 513.

Now that it is completed, this attempt to render the Greek New Testament into the English that now prevails, and to translate its ideas in terms of modern ways of thinking, makes a good impression. It follows the text of Westcott and Hort. It gives measures and coins as far as possible in their English equivalents, while it wisely declines to interfere with the forms of proper names and places with which we have been made familiar by the Authorised version and the Revised. The translators have been somewhat puzzled as to the best course to pursue in arranging the books. They have decided on retaining the usual grouping, but with the important qualification that within the groups the writings are placed in the chronological order which is most in favour with expert scholars. So the New Testament begins with Mark's Gospel. The Pauline letters to churches are arranged in the order of Thessalonians, Romans, Corinthians, Galatians, Ephesians, Philippians, Colossians. The general letters are made to include Hebrews as the first in order, and after it James, I John, 1 Peter, 2 Peter, Jude. Philemon, 2 John and 3 John form a separate group of personal letters, and the Apocalypse comes last. Generally speaking, the rendering is free and popular, and suitable for the purpose in view. It seldom offends either against taste or against the real sense of the original. It has a tendency, however, which is natural in the circumstances, to adopt neutral or vague terms. On the very first page, c.g., the translation "a baptism upon repentance for forgiveness of sins," by using the word "for" misses or obscures the real relation expressed between the baptism and the forgiveness. In Matt. xxv. 46 and elsewhere, the vexed term aionios is disposed of as - enduring. In I Peter iii. 19 a "then" is inserted ("His body died, but His spirit rose to new life, and it was then that He went," etc.), which goes beyond the professed

object of the translation, and commits the reader to a particular view of the exegesis. So the great Pauline phrase "in Christ" (e.g., in Eph. i. 4) becomes "in the person of Christ". But the work, as a whole, is done with a large measure of success. It keeps a safe course between a pedantic literalism and a loose paraphrase, and brings many of the great passages, especially those of a doctrinal import, nearer the common understanding of English readers of the present day.

Hand-Commentar zum Neuen Testament. Bearbeitet von Professor Dr. H. J. Holtzmann in Strassburg, etc. Erster Band. Dritte gänzlich umgearbeitete Auflage. Erste Abtheilung. Die Synoptiker, bearbeitet von H. J. Holtzmann. Zweite Halfte. Die Evangelien nach Matthäus und Lucas, Titelbogen und Sachregister enthaltend. Tübingen und Leipzig: J. C. B. Mohr; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. Large 8vo, pp. xviii. + 428. Price of the volume on the Synoptics, M.6, during the issue of the third edition; separately M.7.

Professor Holtzmann's commentary on the Synoptical Gospels has been prepared mainly on the basis of his academic lectures. Its form has naturally been influenced somewhat by this. It gives some place in particular to notes dealing with matters of antiquarian interest, with questions of textual criticism, with points belonging to lexicography, etc. To most readers this will be an advantage. present edition differs from former issues in giving more of the details of the exegesis, and also in adopting a new arrangement of the matter. The plan of attempting to construct an inclusive commentary taking the three Gospels in one view is given up, and we get now three commentaries, dealing with Mark, Matthew and Luke separately and in succession. Mark has been handled at considerable length in the first part, and the work is completed by the publication of Matthew and Luke in the second part. On this follows the exposition of the Acts of the Apostles, which book was embraced within the scope of the first volume of the Hand-Commentar. The text followed is Tischendorf's

last, as it appears in the Tauchnitz issue edited by O. v. Gebhardt. All care has been taken to work in the results of the most recent literature on these Gospels, so far as is possible under the limitations of the Hand-Commentar. But it has not been possible to give much attention to the questions regarding Semitic originals or models, the practicability of translating the words of our Lord back into Hebrew or Aramaic, etc., which have been raised by Wellhausen, Resch, Meyer, Dalman, Nestle, Zahn and others. Professor Holtzmann wisely contents himself with the exposition of the Greek text which does exist and can be handled, and does not attempt to deal with a Semitic text which no one has seen. He indicates that his own opinion, however, is that in all probability the collection of Aramaic Logia to which antiquity bears witness in the case of Matthew was known to the Synoptists in a Greek version. Professor Holtzmann's volume should be more useful than ever in this new form.

Addresses on the Acts of the Apostles. By Edward White Benson, sometime Archbishop of Canterbury. London: Macmillan & Co., 1901. Pp. xx.+669. Price 21s. net.

Some time ago the representatives of the late Archbishop Benson published a volume by him on *The Apocalypse*, which he had hoped to finish after the completion of his book on *Cyprian*. In that volume the results of an almost life-long study of the Revelation of St. John were given. It was not intended to be more than an introductory study, but it dealt at considerable length with the structure of the Apocalypse and the fundamental principles of its interpretation. There were some things in it that were fanciful and somewhat apart from historical exegesis, but there was also much suggestive and fruitful matter in it of various kinds. It furnished a careful translation, bestowed much attention on the form of the book and the relations in which the most

¹London: Macmillan & Co., 1900. Large Cr. 8vo, pp. xx.+177. Price 8s. 6d. net.

characteristic parts stood to each other, and gave a series of essays on the framework of the Apocalypse, its peculiarities in grammar, etc. The present volume on Acts is of a different order. It consists of a series of popular addresses, which were never fully written out, but were delivered from notes in an easy, colloquial style. There are seven groups of addresses. Of these fifteen are given to the Church of Jerusalem, five to the Conversion of St. Paul, seven to the Acts of Peter, six to the Building up of the Church, ten to Christ and the Great Towns, six to the Journey to Jerusalem, and seven to the Journey from Jerusalem to Rome. They do not grapple very firmly with the difficult problems of the book. They speak with a divided voice even of such questions as demoniacal possession, the case of the Pythoness, etc., and they are sometimes quite naive in their Churchly spirit. They are addresses very suitable, however, for the occasions and the audience, and they contain many wise and edifying observations. The volume is a large and sumptuous one, beautifully printed, with wide margins, and having a running analysis on the side of the page.

Old Testament History. By G. Woosung Wade, D.D., Lecturer in Hebrew at St. David's College, Lampeter. London: Methuen & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xii. + 532. Price 6s.

A Short History of the Hebrews to the Roman Period. By R. L. OTTLEY, Rector of Winterbourne Bassett, Wiltshire; sometime Student of Christ Church and Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. Cambridge: University Press. 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 324. Price 5s.

These are two volumes on the same subject, differing somewhat in scope and treatment, but each useful in its own way. Both are written from the critical standpoint, and in the spirit of the newer learning, and both supply, though not quite in the same way, the kind of history that has been needed for some time for two great classes of readers.

Dr. Wade's book is an excellent book for students. It goes more into scholarly detail than the other, and attempts

a larger, fuller presentation of the history. There is a good Introduction in which a critical account is given of the Old Testament writings-their origin, character, purpose, and their worth as authorities. There are valuable Appendices, dealing with the analysis of the Pentateuch, the Moabite stone, weights and measures, names and order of the months. There are also some good maps. The history proper is prefaced by an interesting chapter on the prehistoric period, which gives a summary of the results both of modern science and of recent inquiry into the legendary lore of ancient peoples as bearing upon the opening chapters of Genesis and the foundations of Hebrew history. The Patriarchal period, the Exodus, the Mosaic age, the Judges, the Monarchy, the Return from the Exile, are then taken up in succession, the story of each being well told, its sources stated, and the contested points discussed with much care. Instructive chapters are introduced from point to point on the state of religion in the several periods, which add much to the value of the book. There is also a considerable body of useful notes, illustrating and elucidating the history. The whole is done in a reverent spirit and with welcome sobriety. There is no attempt either at fine writing or at dashing speculation. The subject of prophecy is ably handled, the predictive element receiving more attention than it often gets. Questions of the text are judiciously treated, the evidence of the LXX being discreetly used and conjectural emendation being ventured on only when all else fails. The book is very correctly printed. There are some slips, such as Karkor for Karkar on page 338, but they are neither many nor serious. Dr. Wade has given us a good constructive sketch of Old Testament history, which will be of great use to many, and which ought to help the uncertain to understand how the critical reading of the Hebrew records is not inconsistent with faith in the Divine leading of Israel and the Divine authority of Scripture.

Mr. Ottley's volume is less elaborate and complete, and more popular in form. Its chief defect is the lack of any statement of the religious development of the people on the growth of the religious ideas. It is written, however, in a pointed and attractive style and with considerable pictorial effect. It has the qualities which should win for it many readers. It gives the history in large and vivid outline, true to fact, as we now read the records, and entirely appropriate to the object in view.

Roman Law and History in the New Testament. By the Rev. Septimus Buss, LL.B., Rector of St. Anne and St. Agnes, London, E.C. London: Rivingtons, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. viii. +480. Price 6s. net.

Mr. Buss distributes his matter over four books, which bear these titles-The Gospels, The Acts, The Trial of St. Paul, Later Events. The reasons for this scheme of arrangement are not very obvious, but a great deal of information is given nevertheless in a handy and usable form, beginning with what is suggested by "Herod and the Nativity" and ending with "Titus and Jerusalem," "Domitian and Patmos," and a collection of the Latinisms which occur in the Greek New Testament. The volume has evidently been compiled with much pains and patience and with an anxious desire to secure accuracy and completeness. But it is defective in some important respects. It relies too much on authorities that are now somewhat old and require to be brought up to date. In dealing with the question of the Nativity, for example, no account is taken of Professor Ramsay's Was Christ born in Bethlehem? Only one or two of the more recent books on St. Paul are noticed, nor is there any evidence of acquaintance with Mommsen, Schürer, and other authorities of the first rank.

The Bible: Its Meaning and Supremacy. By F. W. FARRAR, D.D., F.R.S., Dean of Canterbury. Second edition: reissue. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1901. 8vo, pp. xv. + 335. Price 6s. net.

The first edition of this book appeared in 1897, and was noticed at the time in this journal. It was reprinted that same year. It is issued now in a new and cheaper edition.

It deals in an eloquent way with the general features of the Bible—its variety and unity, its non-homogeneity in its ethics, its antitheses, etc., and also with its difficulties, the misinterpretations to which it has been subject, the untenable methods of exegesis which have been applied to it, the things it has suffered by the wresting of texts, etc. Dean Farrar writes with a glow and an enthusiasm worthy of his subject. His book does not profess to go into the deeper and more serious questions connected with the growth of the Bible, the relation of one part to another, the function of the whole. But it will be useful in commending the broad claims of Scripture, in reminding us of what men have owed to it from age to age, and in dispelling some mistaken conceptions of its character and its purpose.

The Christian's Great Interest. By WILLIAM GUTHRIE. London: Andrew Melrose, 1901. Fcap. 8vo, pp. 251. Price 2s. 6d.

Mr. Smellie has done well to include this book in the series of Books for the Heart which he edits. In an instructive introduction he speaks of the period of the Second Reformation as a time in which Scotland was "rich in great and deep thinking men," and justly claims for Guthrie a conspicuous place among them "in virtue both of his intellectual gifts and of his spiritual endowment". He has himself a great regard for the book. "From its opening to its ending," he says, "the little book is fashioned of the fine gold of the heavenly country; and its value is not impaired, nor its lustre dimmed, because two centuries and a half have gone past since the cunning hand and the gracious heart of the craftsman moulded it into shape." He has taken advantage of the assistance of others well versed in the history and the literature of Guthrie's time, and has carefully collated no less than twenty-six editions of the treatise which were put at his disposal. He has done his work lovingly and faithfully, sparing no pains in the preparation of this admirable and attractive edition. In this tasteful form the volume should win many readers.

S. D. F. SALMOND.

I. The Minor Prophets.

By Rev. John Adams, B.D., Inverkeilor. Bible Class Primers. Edited by Principal Salmond, D.D. Pp. 111. Price 6d.

2. The Great Saints of the Bible.

By Louis Albert Banks, D.D. London: C. H. Kelly. Pp. 351. Price 5s.

3. The Grammar of Prophecy.

By Canon Girdlestone, formerly Principal of Wycliffe Hall.

London: Eyre & Spottiswoode, H.M. Printers. Bible Student's Library. Pp. 192. Price 6s.

4. Papal Aims and Papal Claims.

By E. Garnet Man. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co., Ltd. Pp. 299. Price 5s. net.

5. Vision and Authority.

By Rev. John Oman, B.D. London: Hodder & Stoughton. Pp. 344. Price 7s. 6d.

6. Redemption According to the Eternal Purpose.

By the Rev. W. Shirley. London: Elliot Stock. Pp. 363.

I. This is an excellent addition to the series of Bible Class Primers. Mr. Adams has more than justified his selection for dealing with the Minor Prophets. The background is sketched in well for the prophets and their work. There is movement in the story. The stream runs clear. Illustrative matter is judiciously used and is always interesting. Hosea in particular, as the most delicate portion of his

subject, is wisely and skilfully treated. It is in fact just the kind of handbook one would wish in going over the period with a Bible Class.

2. It is a long time surely since sermons like these were given to the world. Who looks in a volume of sermons for a catching of the breath, ripples of laughter, the welling up of tears, the quick sympathy with intense moral purpose? There is uncommon humour, unconventionality, and spiritual directness withal in these discourses. A sprinkling of Americanisms may not please the classic taste; the American manner too is often apparent; but it is difficult to imagine that the reality and freshness of parallel and illustration can fail in interest and even admiration. For a publication like this to make the reviewer of them long to go and preach sermons virile and fearless and timely as these, and at any rate to set to work and do one's best, is perhaps the most significant commendation one can pass upon the volume. Some of the sermon headings may be mentioned: "The Pioneer Saint"; "The First Man Who Thwarted Death"; "A Saint with a Crooked Past"; "The Second Violin"; "The Five Wise Virgins of the Old Testament"; "The Man He Might Have Been"; "A Bright Man Who Needed Making Over"; "A Politician Who Lost His Infidelity"; "The Power House of the Soul".

If the companion, *Great Sinners of the Bible*, is at all equal to the present work, then there are two volumes by this author well worth a place on many a minister's table for stimulus to mind and heart.

^{3. &}quot;It is natural that each age and country should see itself figuring largely in history, and the men who are conspicuous in its eyes are looked for in the prophetic page" (p. vii.).

[&]quot;It is remarkable that none of the names for a prophet signify either prevision or prediction. All rather point to communications from the spirit-world prompting to the utterance of what is felt or seen" (p. 34).

"While dealing with these important subjects, the conviction, entertained for many years, has been deepening in the writer's mind, that prediction is an essential element in revelation and that we lose a great blessing if we disregard it" (p. 171).

The book is written with restraint and ability. It cannot be said however to add to our knowledge or to clear up the situation to any considerable extent. Useful appendices are given of leading dates, of names and subjects, and of texts.

4. The author of this work explains his purpose in these closing sentences. "It is not against the Roman Catholic laity or the hard-working Roman Catholic priest that I write: I number friends in both classes. But it is against that hidden unscrupulous power in the papacy which exploits the charity of the good sisters, the trusting devotion of the laity—the superstition of the ignorant—the Holy Father himself, in furtherance of political ambition and temporal supremacy" (p. 299).

There is much that is excellent in the book: but there is much that is unnecessary. It is unnecessary to reargue all the positions, and make what should be a brochure of the hour a Church history monograph. Some problems have been settled in history and do not demand a fresh discussion at the hand of every controversialist. The result is that in reading the work before us we desiderate the discussion of the modern, present-day issue. This is not altogether overlooked. The present Cardinal Archbishop and the late Professor St. George Mivart are cited and to good controversial purpose. It is the disproportion of the argument that flaws the serviceableness of the work.

^{5.} Mr. Oman has written an able work. The subject is a seasonable one, and it is worthily discussed. The thought is strong and sinewy. The freshness of originality is a pleasure to the reader. In places the discussion is diffuse, somewhat sermonic in form—may be betraying the original form of the

argument. But the occasional diffuseness is readily forgiven for the strength and freshness of the thought. His parallel between the delicate optic nerve and the faculty of vision has been much commented on; and certainly exception taken to Vision on the ground of its tenuity and precariousness may be aptly met by this parallel. The main divisions of the work are Internal and External Authority; the Church's Creed and her Organisation.

6. This is a re-setting of truth in the light of the evolutionary hypothesis. It is an earnest and sustained discussion. Its aim is fairly expressed in the following sentence: "No attempt to be dogmatic will be made in these pages. If arbitrary lines of demarcation appear to be drawn at any place, it will have been done for the sake of clearness, not in presumption nor pretence of more perfect knowledge" (p. 52).

In the effort at clearness dignity is sometimes sacrificed. "God to the fallen man was as 'Dr. Fell' to the pupil" (p. 254). There is sometimes a precariousness of thought as well as of terms. The author's statement of the Trinity is a case in point (p. 252), where we have more fancifulness than freshness. The author's collocation of the Flood, the Law, and the Incarnate Christ as a triple redemption is suggestive. The book is stimulative even where it provokes to disagreement.

W. B. COOPER.

- I. Das Passah-Mazzoth-Fest, nach seinem Ursprunge, u.s.w., untersucht.
- Von Rudolf Schaefer, Lic. Theol. Gütersloh: G. Bertelsmann; London: Williams & Norgate, 1900. 8vo, pp. vii. + 348. Price 5s. 9d.; bound, 7s. 6d. net.
- Beihefte der Zeitschrift für die alttest. Wissenschaft, V.:
 Eine jakobitische Einleitung in den Psalter, in Verbindung mit zwei Homilien aus dem grossen Psalmenkommentar des Daniel von Şalah, zum ersten Male herausgegeben, übersetzt und bearbeitet.
- Von Lic. Dr. G. Diettrich, Pfarrer der deutschen evangel, Gemeinde zu Sydenham, London. Giessen: J. Ricker, 1901. 8vo, pp. xlvii. + 167. Price M.6.50.
- Elohim: eine Studie zur israel. Religions- und Literaturgeschichte, nebst Beitrag zur Religionsphilosophie und einer Pentateuchtabelle.
- Von Hellmuth Zimmermann, Ph.D. Berlin: Mayer & Müller; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. 8vo, pp. viii. + 83. Price 2s. 6d. net.

4. A Short Account of the Hebrew Tenses.

- By the Rev. R. H. Kennett, M.A., Fellow and Lecturer of Queens' College, Cambridge University Lecturer in Aramaic. Cambridge: At the University Press, 1901. Small 8vo, pp. viii. + 104. Price 3s.
- 5. Die metrischen Stücke des Buches Jeremia reconstruirt.
- Von Dr. C. H. Cornill, Professor an der Universität, Breslau. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. Small 8vo, pp. xiii. + 41. Price M.1.50.
- 1. The author of Das Herrenmahl (1897) intends his present investigation of the Passah-Mazzoth-Fest to serve as the basis

of his former work. The Lord's Supper he holds to be unintelligible except from the standpoint of the Passover, and hence the origin, signification, and development of the latter are invested with much importance. He deals first with the question of a pre-Mosaic basis of the Passah-Mazzoth, and then passes on to the Feast as it appears in the Pentateuch: (1) in the Book of the Covenant, (2) in I, (3) in the historical work [E, (4) in D, (5) in P, (6) in H, (7) in Pg, (8) in Ps. He considers that the attempts to discover a nature basis for the Feast have failed, and in general that the theory of the Graf-Wellhausen school [is there any justification for such an expression? is untenable. While assenting to the succession IE, D, P as true to the literary origin of the Pentateuch, he thinks that the dates of these sources should be placed earlier than it is the fashion to do. And he adds quite unnecessarily that the conclusions reached by literary criticism prove nothing as to the age of the Passah-Mazzoth regulations. The merest tyro in the school of Wellhausen could have told us that. The least satisfactory element in Dr. Schaefer's argument is his use of what we believe to be quite illegitimate harmonising methods. But, while we cannot profess to consider him successful in many of his principal contentions, we would warmly commend the book for its laborious. painstaking character, for its freedom from all intentional unfairness to opponents, for the valuable light it throws on various points in the History of Religion, and for the decided help it gives to the understanding of the Passover institution.

^{2.} Dr. G. Diettrich has supplied a felt want by his publication of this Syriac Introduction to the Psalter. The character of the work, and of the MS. from which it is taken (Harris, No. 65, written in the year 1754), are fully described in the preface. The Introduction is by a Monophysite who wrote some time between the tenth and the twelfth century A.D. As is usual with such works, it contains much from Greek writers, like Hippolytus, Athanasius, and Chrysostom, and it treats of the contents of the Psalter, its origin, inspiration (of which the author takes a very mechanical view).

etc. Both the Introduction and the accompanying two Homilies of Daniel of Salah contain a great deal whose intrinsic value is of little value for the scientific study of Scripture, but whose importance for the history both of dogma and of exegesis is very great. Dr. Diettrich's work will take its place as one of the most valuable contributions to a somewhat obscure department of knowledge.

3. Zimmermann's tractate deals with a subject that is of interest and contains some correct views regarding the development of religious ideas in Israel. We are quite convinced, however, that the author fails entirely to make out his main contention, namely, that Elohim, at first an epithet — $\theta\epsilon \hat{\iota}o\nu$, and bestowed indifferently upon Jahweh and other gods, came to be a nomen proprium for Israel's God through the activity of a school of glossators. This Elohistic school is supposed to have been still at work on the books of the Old Testament as late as B.C. 300.

^{4.} Mr. Kennett's Short Account of the Hebrew Tenses will prove most serviceable to Hebrew students, particularly those who have not yet reached the stage of using the well-known and admirable treatise of Professor Driver on the same subject. Our author explains very clearly and successfully the distinction between the state (perfect, i.e., complete, or imperfect) and the time of an action, the first of these being the important point to the Hebrew mind. The uses of the perfect and imperfect (including the Cohortative and Jussive) are illustrated by well-chosen examples, and a lucid and logical explanation is given of the sequence of Tenses (Waw consecutive). The uses of the Participle and the Infinitive (both Construct and Absolute) are also carefully examined. We venture to predict a very successful career for Mr. Kennett's treatise.

^{5.} In this little work Dr. Cornill publishes, without notes critical or exegetical, all the passages in Jeremiah which he considers to be metrical. These amount to some 500 distiches, Vol. XII.—No. 5.

and are arranged in what our author believes to be the chronological order. The preface explains why the text, which will form the basis of the translation in the *Polychrome Bible*, comes to be published at the present time, and how it is meant to supersede the text already furnished by the same author for the *Sacred Books of the Old Testament*. The name of Dr. Cornill will secure due attention for this work, especially in view of the fresh interest that has been given to Jeremiah by the recent publication of Duhm's commentary.

J. A. SELBIE.

- I. Das Pseudotertullianische Gedicht Adversus Marcionem: Ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der Altchristlichen Litteratur, sowie zur Quellenkritik des Marcionitismus.
- Von Lic. Theol. Hans Waitz. Darmstadt: Johannes Waitz, 1901. 8vo, pp. viii. + 158. Price M.5.60.
- Der christliche Gottesbegriff im Sinne der gegenwärtigen evangelisch-lutherischen Kirche.
- Von Dr. Georg Schnedermann, a. o. Professor der Theologie in Leipzig. Leipzig: A. Deichert, 1901. 8vo, pp. xiii. + 225—499. Price M.3.60.
 - 3. Étude sur les Gesta Martyrum Romains.
- Par Albert Dufourcq. Paris: Ancienne Librairie, Thorin et Fils. Large 8vo, pp. viii. + 441. Price Fr.12.50.
- 4. La Controverse de l'Apostolicité des Églises de France au XIXe Siècle.
- Par A. Houtin. Deuxième Edition, Revue et Augmentée. Paris. A. Fontemoing; Laval: A. Goupil, 1901. 8vo, pp. 136.
- I. A Latin poem in five books against Marcion was published by Fabricius in 1564, but unfortunately the one manuscript known to exist from which that edition was printed was soon afterwards lost. We have, therefore, only this printed edition, in which the editor made many corrections where the vocabulary and metre, judged by classical standards, seemed to require it; but later scholars have done what they could to restore the original text. Several critics, among them Harnack, regard Rome as the place of its origin, but Oxé and others, working with a Vatican manuscript of a poem ascribed to one Victorinus, in which large pieces of this Anti-Marcionite poem are incorporated, and from which they have endeavoured to produce a corrected text, have

reached the conclusion, accepted by our author, that not Rome, but Africa, was the place of its origin. Its date is variously assigned by Oxé to the fourth century (from 360 to 380), by Hilgenfeld to the third century, and by Manitius to the fifth or sixth century. After a most elaborate investigation our author comes to the conclusion that it most probably belongs to the third century. He finds that the departures of the writer from the classical ars poetica are not greater than we find in Commodian. An examination of the sources which the author of the poem has made use of shows that he was well acquainted with the writings of Virgil, and that of early Christian authors he used the Shepherd of Hermas and the Epistle of Barnabas, that he seems to have known the works of Irenæus and Tertullian, and possibly those of Cyprian, but that it cannot be shown that he has used any later Latin literature. After several hypotheses as to the authorship have been discussed. Waitz proceeds to inquire whether Commodian himself may not have been the author. That poet lived in the third century in Africa. Our author quotes passages from the poem against Marcion and from the acknowledged poems of Commodian to show that in both there is the same sort of descriptions of the heathen world, the same views of the Church and its institutions, and generally the same religious and theological attitude. He also shows in detail how their views and their mode of expressing their views about particular doctrinesmonotheism, the resurrection, eschatological beliefs, Christological and soteriological theories—are in striking agreement, They use the same sources, show a preference for the same figures of speech, have the same peculiarities of syntax and vocabulary. The conclusion reached is that Commodian is the author of the poem against Marcion, and that as he composed his Carmen Apologeticum against Jews and heathens during the Decian persecution, so this poem was composed in the subsequent period, during the second half of the third century.

A careful examination of Herr Waitz's argument enables one to say that he has made out an exceedingly good case for the conclusion which he reaches. If continued study of the points raised by him confirms this conclusion, we shall have in this poem as a work of Commodian, written soon after the middle of the third century, a most valuable addition to the literature of the Marcionite controversy.

2. This is the second part of a system of theology which the author means to complete in six parts. The first part, consisting of an Introduction, appeared in 1899, and the author expects in a year or two to issue the third part on the World, Man and Sin, which will complete the first of the two volumes of which the work is to consist. In the introductory volume he had dealt with the questions usually discussed in the Prolegomena to a system of theology. In that volume the author had described the subject of his whole treatise as-Our Fellowship with God through Jesus Christ. Starting with this view of his subject, he proceeds to divide the systematic treatise into eight parts: on God, on Man and the World, on Sin, on the Restoration through Christ, on the Appropriation by the Individual Believer of the new Fellowship, on the Appropriation by the Believing Community of the new Fellowship or the Doctrine of the Church (these two latter sections embracing the doctrines of the Holy Spirit, Predestination and the Holy Scriptures), on the Last Things, and finally, on the Holy Trinity.

In the part of the work now before us the author treats of the Christian Doctrine of God according to the view of the Evangelical Lutheran Church of to-day. In his treatment of his subject, he avoids as far as possible the use of technical terms and the scholastic method, and appeals to the cultured members of the Christian Church as his audience. This purpose of aiming at popular treatment has, it would seem, somewhat injuriously affected our author's consideration of the nature of God, and led to the omission of certain points in the discussion which are important scientifically, but whose introduction might militate against the popular effect of the work. In five chapters he deals successively with the fundamental utterances of the Christian consciousness, of the

Christian community, of Holy Scripture, of Jesus Christ and of all these sources combined, with regard to God. In all these chapters popular expression is given to well-known and generally accepted truths, but it cannot be said that anywhere in them we have any very fresh or striking restatement of the old familiar doctrines. In the last chapter, Dr. Schnedermann undertakes to set forth a full and systematic statement of the doctrine of the nature and attributes of God. The exposition of both of these doctrines is necessarily meagre and ill-proportioned. In many respects, in regard both to excellences and defects, the work in so far as it goes may be compared to Dr. W. N. Clarke's Outline of Christian Theology. The work is written in a fine evangelical spirit, and is calculated to be useful to a large circle of readers.

3. This is the eighty-third volume of a series issued under the auspices of the French Ministry of Public Instruction as the Bibliothèque des Écoles Français d'Athénes et de Rome. The purpose of the work is carefully described by the author in his preface. His subject is the stories of the Roman martyrs, and he undertakes to determine the characteristics, the causes and the consequences of these legends. He analyses the Gesta Martyrum in order to discover their philological and moral character, he then seeks by a critical analysis of the traditions to sift and set forth the particular facts, and finally, to consider the influence these legends have exerted on the ideas, worship, literature and art of successive ages. The work is thus well laid out, and the particulars are treated with great accuracy and in full detail.

Our author describes in a clear and interesting manner the gradual growth of calendars of the martyrs and martyrologies. In 598 Gregory I. wrote to Eulogius, Bishop of Alexandria, describing a calendar of martyrs used in the Church of Rome, containing only the names of martyrs, and the days and places of their martyrdom. The books of martyrs in highest esteem in early times were those of Eusebius and Jerome. Subsequently details giving in-

cidents in the lives, miracles and amplified accounts of the sufferings of the martyrs were added, and this led to successive interpolations for purposes of edification. These redactions of the stories were made after the persecutions were over, and when no longer eye and ear witnesses of the alleged events survived. For the most part the legends date from the Ostro-Gothic period, and lie between the establishment of what is called the Bas-Empire at the death of Theodosius in 395 and the death of Gregory of Tours in 594. This position as to the date of the legends generally is supported by particular inquiries as to the dates of the several traditions (pp. 293-321).

The character of some of the interpolations and redactions enables us easily to trace these changes to their source, and to determine the sect from which they proceeded, and the time and place of their origin. During the fifth and sixth centuries Manichæism spread to an alarming extent in the West. In Africa, Rome and Spain, we find Augustine, Leo the Great and other orthodox champions treating it as a danger which seriously threatened to corrupt the purity of the faith of the Church. The influence of this Manichæan revival is seen in a peculiar colouring given in certain redactions of the legends of the martyrs. Toward the end of the fourth century the traditions about Peter and Paul, and those about the flight of Peter, were re-edited by Manichæans who infused into them their own views. This Manichæan movement within the Christian Church made its appearance in a yet bolder form in legendary apologies of Simon Magus, Basilides, Mani and Montanus. As the redaction of the traditions went on it gave rise to the constructing of new legends. M. Dufourcq gives us specimens of those new fabrications modelled upon the older ones in respect of style and contents. The legend of St. Lucia and St. Geminianus may be given as a specimen of the later romancing stories of the sufferings and deaths of martyrs. In the thirteenth year of Diocletian and Maximian an aged Christian woman, named Lucia, was denounced by her son Euprepius and brought before the assessor Gebal. She

refused to sacrifice and was therefore tortured. Her sufferings were avenged by an inundation of the Tiber which destroyed Diocletian's palace. While being led out to punishment, she converts the pagan Geminianus, not far from the tombs of St. John and St. Paul. The executioner Pyrrhopogon is crushed. Finally, Lucia and Geminianus are transported by angels to Sicily, and after other marvellous adventures Lucia dies a natural death, while Geminianus is massacred in attempting to get out of a cavern. After reading such a story, which is a very fair specimen of the average legend, we shall readily agree with M. Dufourcq (p. 75) that the psychology of these traditions is infantine, and that they have a tendency character, that a whole world, an infinity, separates the soul of the martyr from that of an ordinary being. He claims, indeed, that what he regards as the authentic acts of the martyrs should not be subjected to ordinary historical and literary criticism. One who does this, he says, wants the literary taste and the Christian sense. Such a dictum, however, might be used as a plea for any amount of irrational credulity.

A very interesting and useful part of the work is found in the last four chapters, which deal with the influence of the legends on the ideas and worship of the seventh and eighth centuries, and on literature and art from the eighth to the fifteenth century. The veneration of martyrs had been on the decline, and at last in the beginning of the ninth century Pascal I. transported 2,300 bodies of martyrs to Rome and distributed them as relics among the churches. The legends proved powerless to keep the tradition alive or to prolong the cult of the martyrs at Rome beyond the eighth century. Our author shows what use has been made of these legends in literature, even so recently as by Anatole France, Cardinal Wiseman, and the author of *Quo Vadis*. Interesting details are also given of the influence of the legends on art both in the Middle Ages and in the Renaissance.

The whole treatise is most thorough and accurate in its scholarship, and the collection of materials is abundant. No serious student of the subject will be able to dispense with this work, which easily holds the first place in its own department.

4. M. Houtin tells in an interesting manner the story of the persistent attempts of French priests, and especially of members of the Benedictine order, to rehabilitate the legendary histories of the origin of the churches of France. The various local church histories have sought to establish the local traditions. Some of these are works of enormous size, written in a most pretentious style, with the assumption of a critical method, and with a seeming abundance, if not a superfluity, of historical details. All these writings received the warm approval of the celebrated ultramontane, the Benedictine Gueranger, and are referred to in the most absurdly flattering terms in the French reviews and newspapers in the service of the Pope. Our author shows how all the best and most independent French historical students have disproved and repudiated the legends by means of which the apostolicity of the several churches are sought to be established. Tillemont, Fleury, Dupin, Launoy, Baillet, had all given conclusive evidence in opposition to the traditional views. Notwithstanding these exposures the champions of this legendary history have boldly embarked upon a reactionary movement, and they still continue, with the most extraordinary audacity, to give forth as historical what had over and over again been most convincingly proved to be utter fables. The story of Denys, as Dionysius the Aeropagite, founding the Church of Paris, as a missionary of St. Peter, is retold in all detail, in defiance of all historical evidence, and the writing attributed to the Aeropagite, though long ago conclusively shown to be a forgery, is, with a boldness which in the circumstances can only be called impudence, claimed to be the veritable work of that apostolic man. M. Faillon had maintained that Mary Magdalene was the founder of the churches of Provence, and had described very particularly her journey to and her work in that district; but this story had to be abandoned by later writers of the same school. The author, however, of the history of the origin of

the Church of Mans maintains, on equally weak grounds, that St. Julien, the traditional founder of that Church, had been sent by St. Peter or St. Clement. In his history of the origin of the Church of Angers, M. Chambord maintains that the world received the Christian faith from the mouth of the Apostles and their immediate disciples, and that the diffusion of Christianity and the organisation of the Churches in Gaul can be traced back to the Apostolic times, even to the first century, through St. Trophymus, the disciple of St. Paul. Even in 1900 M. Bellet in replying to a volume of the Fastes épiscopaux, published in the previous year, in which historical truth is set forth, repeats unblushingly all the absolutely unfounded legends reported by early unscientific writers. These stories, according to M. Houtin, were accepted in the end of the nineteenth century as the public opinion of Catholic France. In conclusion, however, he expresses his conviction that already truth is beginning to prevail, and that the uncritical reaction shows signs of enfeeblement, and that it is being more and more surely discredited.

JOHN MACPHERSON.

The Varieties of Religious Experience; a Study in Human Nature.

By William James, LL.D., etc. London: Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. xii. + 534. Price 12s. net.

It is a significant fact that the most recent volume of Gifford Lectures should have come from our foremost psychologist, and that the discussion of "Natural Religion" should have become "A Study in Human Nature". The significance does not lie simply in the entrance of science into a field which philosophy has long regarded as her own. With this we are already familiar through the numerous attempts at an anthropological treatment of religious phenomena which the last generation has produced. To many, these attempts have only a limited value, because of their so frequent reduction of religion to its lowest elements, or accompaniments, in the religion of a savage, and their failure to explain the noblest development of all, the religion of Christ. Professor James' book is to be clearly distinguished from such attempts. His examples are chiefly drawn from Christian experience, and he is concerned with acknowledged types of a high personal piety. The method of study is the same as that of the professed anthropologist, i.e., the patient classification of facts. This method, of course, belongs to the movement of critical thought as a whole, and its reluctance to utter broad generalisations about eternal truth, till the thinker has more closely examined the "narrow bank and shoal of time" on which such truth for us must rest. We must know better what man is, as a religious animal, before we can measure the worth and truth of the religion which lifts him above the animal. But those who know the author's earlier writings do not need to be told that the use of empirical methods has not made him an empiricist. He plunges into the forest of fact determined to see the wood as well as the trees, and in the conviction that his path will ultimately emerge into the clear daylight. He writes avowedly as a psychologist rather than as a philosopher, and believes "that a large acquaintance with particulars often makes us wiser than the possession of abstract formulas". But there is undoubted philosophic significance in the volume, as the argument of a scientist claiming the freedom of faith from the tyranny of the conclusions of many present-day scientists.

Few men could come to such a task with a better equipment than Professor James, and fewer still would have carried out the analysis of faith's secrets in a spirit so sympathetic with the believer, and so reverent for ultimate truth. That the book is vigorous and fresh and provocative of the liveliest interest goes without saying for those who know anything of the author. The large amount of quotation and condensation from classical autobiography is especially valuable, and will send many to explore for themselves new hills and valleys of religious experience. But beyond lively treatment and interesting matter, we believe this book will have a real value for the thoughtful student of the problems of faith. One may regret that the Gifford bequest has not provided for the cheaper publication of Gifford Lectures, but we do not think that even those to whom the price of a book is an important question will regret the purchase of this.

The value to any reader of a classification of facts will depend on his acceptance of the principle of the classification. How does the classifier approach his facts? The reason for the choice of a particular method of classification is necessarily involved in this approach. We are all suspicious of smoothly written pages which owe their cogency to the undefined prepossessions of the writer. The equation may look well enough till we begin to ask about the unknown x in it. Perhaps we have all sometimes felt the desire to compel our philosophic teachers to stand and deliver the x of their faith in the currency of common usage. What is the x in the case of Professor James? The best statement of it is given in a sentence of Pascal's, quoted by him in his

earlier volume The Will to Believe (p. 21), "le cœur a ses raisons que la raison ne connaît pas". This might have stood as a motto on the title-page of the present book. It is a plea for personality. In connection with the author's work on behalf of the Society of Psychical Research, he had already told us (The Will to Believe, p. 321), "The result is to make me feel that we all have potentially a 'subliminal' self, which may make at any time irruption into our ordinary lives. At the lowest, it is only the depository of our forgotten memories; at its highest, we do not know what it is." But in another place in the same book (p. 62), he went further, and told us that in this subliminal life is "our deepest organ of communication with the nature of things". The present book is the working out of this thesis. The author considers that the most important advance in psychology in his own time "is the discovery, first made in 1886, that in certain subjects at least, there is not only the consciousness of the ordinary field, with its usual centre and margin, but an addition thereto, in the shape of a set of memories, thoughts and feelings, which are extra-marginal and outside of the primary consciousness altogether, but yet must be classed as conscious facts of some sort, able to reveal their presence by unmistakable signs" (p. 233). To apply this discovery to the psychology of religion is the author's contribution to the subject. In doing this, he claims to be showing us a spiritual doorway into the soul, at which spiritual truth can knock; he claims to show, not only the existence of this doorway, but its actual use, by a purely empirical study of the phenomena of religious experience; and he challenges the empiricist to explain in any other way the presence of these phenomena. If to the idealist philosopher these claims seem to take us only a very little way, even should they be granted, one may remember that modesty of claim has not seldom been one of the marks of truth, and that a molehill of truth is better than a mountain of error. Let us look then, at the actual classification of the facts which results when they are so approached.

The first two lectures deal with necessary points of intro-

duction, and of the definition of the field itself. Religion is defined, for the present purpose, as "the feelings, acts and experiences of individual men in their solitude, so far as they apprehend themselves to stand in relation to whatever they may consider the divine" (p. 31). This purely empiricist definition was necessitated by the manner of approach, and must not be taken as expressing the author's own ultimate conclusions. We are warned against prejudice as to the value of any fragment of religious experience, arising from analysis of its psychological origin, or its physiological accompaniment. Existential and value judgments are distinguished, and illustrated by the difference between critical and devotional study of the Bible. From this standpoint, "medical materialism" is shown to be illogical in thinking it has undermined the spiritual authority of, say, Paul, "by calling his vision on the road to Damascus a discharging lesion of the occipital cortex". So with genius. It may be, and often is, pathologically conditioned, but we still admire and value the works of genius. If any one objects to the use Professor James intends to make of abnormal states, he contends—we think rightly, from his standpoint that these "isolate special factors of the mental life" and enable us the better to study them.

These generalities of introduction are dismissed by the author with an evident feeling of relief as he invites us to tread the firmer ground and enjoy the clearer view of definite fact. These he groups under the following heads: "The Reality of the Unseen," "The Religion of Healthy-mindedness," "The Sick Soul and Divided Self," "Conversion," "Saintliness," "Mysticism". It may be useful to notice as briefly as possible the point of view in each case.

The impression left by the discussion of "The Reality of the Unseen" is not very definite; perhaps this was unavoidable from the nature of the subject, but the section certainly seems less successful than those that follow. The point is that some at least are capable of perceiving the existence of a reality outside themselves, not cognisable by any of the ordinary senses. This experience is convincing to those who have it. Rationalism, demanding articulate reason for our beliefs, makes its appeal only to the surface of our mental life; "if you have intuitions at all, they come from a deeper level of your nature". The evidence offered ranges from hallucinations to mystical or semi-mystical experiences of a Divine Presence, but no opinion is given at this stage as to the objective truth of the belief created.

The emotional colour of such an experience may vary within wide limits. The second group of phenomena contains those to which the optimistic attitude belongs, and these are classed as "The Religion of Healthy-mindedness". Examples are found in Theodore Parker and Walt Whitman, among others. But the practical expression of this attitude to life is chiefly illustrated from the contemporary mind-cure movement. This is discussed with considerable detail: some will think with a too tolerant sympathy. Professor James regards "mind-cure as primarily a religious movement" (p. 105), and is struck by its psychological similarity to Lutheran and Wesleyan experiences. "It is but giving your little private convulsive self a rest, and finding a greater self is there" (p. 111). From a non-American standpoint, one cannot help thinking that a disproportionate space, viz., 32 pages, is given to the subject of mind-cure. The chief conclusion drawn is "that the world can be handled according to many systems of ideas . . . and will each time give some characteristic kind of profit" (p. 122).

"The Sick Soul" designates him for whom a natural optimism is impossible. The "healthy-minded" attitude may be reached, as by Luther and Molinos, after the evil of the world has been faced. But the thought struggle is severe; the prevalent inmost consciousness is of failure. Phases in the lives of Tolstoy and Bunyan are chosen as types of religious melancholy. The conclusion drawn in this section is "that healthy-mindedness is inadequate as a philosophical doctrine, because the evil facts which it refuses positively to account for are a genuine portion of reality; and they may, after all, be the best key to life's significance, and possibly the only openers of our eyes to the deepest levels of truth".

The unification of a self so divided (cf. Augustine) is what Professor James regards as "Conversion". Emphasis is laid on self-surrender as the indispensable element. "One may say that the whole development of Christianity in inwardness has consisted in little more than the greater and greater emphasis attached to this crisis of self-surrender." Instantaneous conversion is, psychologically, the more complete. At this point in his descriptive work, the author offers us his theory of subconscious influences to which reference has already been made. As is expressly stated, this theory does not exclude the operation of the Divine Spirit; what is claimed is that "sudden conversion is connected with the possession of an active subliminal self". A Christian, accepting Professor James' theory, might hold that the Holy Spirit acted on the soul through this subliminal self. The chief importance of the conversion experience is said to consist in its showing to a human being "what the highwater mark of his spiritual capacity is".

Five lectures are devoted to "Saintliness" and its value. These are of the greatest interest, and none is likely to read them without seeing many old truths in a new light. It is, of course, impossible even to mention the various points raised in the discussion of Asceticism, Strength of Soul, Purity and Charity. (The preacher is likely to find suggestive illustrations from the numerous quotations.) In regard to the value of saintliness, the author thinks one ought not to demand from men uniformity of type; there may be "different functions in the organism of humanity allotted to different types of man" (p. 333). "Economically, the saintly group of qualities is indispensable to the world's welfare" (p. 377). The practical conclusion is that we cannot all be saints, but we ought to be if we can.

The last group of experiences to be noticed is of those classed under "Mysticism". The qualities of this state are given as Ineffability, Illumination, Transiency and Passivity. But "consciousness of illumination is for us the essential mark of 'mystical' states" (p. 408, n.). Mysticism is the reverse of pessimistic. Mystical states are rightly authorita-

tive for the subject of them, but not for others. They break down the authority of the purely rationalistic consciousness, for "they open out the possibility of other orders of truth" (p. 423). Professor James is evidently inclined to think "that possibility and permission of this sort are all that the religious consciousness requires to live on " (p. 429). One is reminded throughout of the philosophy underlying Browning's A Death in the Desert :---

> God's gift was that man should conceive of truth And yearn to catch it, catching at mistake As midway help till he reach fact indeed.

Considerable space has been given here to the outline of the descriptive part of this book, because this part is central to its purpose and gives it a real value to the reader, whether or not he may accept the author's philosophic point of view. The full treatment of the latter is postponed to another volume, but, meantime, three lectures and a postscript are devoted to the philosophic questions involved. The conclusions must be stated in the briefest possible form, and are already familiar to readers of The Will to Believe. The arguments for idealism are reviewed and rejected. We are thrown back on religious experience itself for any real evidence of religious truth. At the same time the author pleads for the reality of the prayer-consciousness, "that something is transacting" (p. 465). "In prayer, spiritual energy, which otherwise would slumber, does become active, and spiritual work of some kind is effected really" (p. 477). It is left an open question whether this work is subjective or objective. Religion, if stated in its lowest terms, is an uneasiness and its solution; the sense that "there is something wrong about us" and that "we are saved from the wrongness by making proper connexion with the higher powers ".

Professor James offers us, then, the subconscious self as a scientific link between our religious experience and the particular faith each may have in the Power to whom it is ascribed. Here is the essential point of his contribution, in his own words: "Whatever it may be on its farther side, the

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'more' with which in religious experience we feel ourselves connected, is on its hither side the subconscious continuation of our conscious life" (p. 512). The book is therefore a contribution to the psychology of religion rather than to its philosophy or to theology. The scientist might, of course, accept the theory of the subconscious self as the immediate source of the phenomena classified. But he might also refuse to admit that this step further back carried us beyond the limits of the individual. The theologian, on the other hand, might say that Professor James has done what science does in general, when it speaks of secondary causes as primary; and that, in any case, he has only called attention to an unnoticed link in the chain connecting us with God. For he still leaves the question of the reality of God to the answers of personal belief or disbelief, or, as he says himself, to "over-belief," any faith that passes beyond reason. These two obvious criticisms suggest themselves as soon as the purport of the book is grasped. We imagine that the author's reply to them would be something like this: to the empiricist he offers the challenge of the facts themselves, which receive no adequate explanation if supposed to originate in the single life; whilst to the idealist he would readily admit that he had done but little, yet would claim that to show the presence of a pathway by which help (power or grace) might come into the soul would be so far presumptive evidence that help did so come, for a student seeking to explain the world of religious experiences. To the writer of this review, these contentions seem to be justified. If so, we can sum up the elements in the contribution made to thought by this book, as follows:-

I. Scientific.—By the author's clear statement of some of the chief phenomena of religious experience, and by the evidence of these he presents, we are certainly helped towards the attainment of truth. Pure fact we cannot obtain in the realm of psychology; we cannot separate interpretation from the phenomenon recorded. The "challenge of facts" referred to above is, after all, a challenge of interpretation, of more or less put into the facts by Professor James and by an empiricist respectively. The only remedy is for each to scan

facts as closely as possible, and to try to interpret as faithfully as possible; towards these ends the book certainly helps.

- 2. Philosophical.—So far as we are justified in claiming that this book makes a philosophical contribution at all, it lies in the attempt to meet a naturalistic empiricism by empiricist methods. Every age needs its own method of defending truth or assailing error. It may fairly be claimed that this is a contribution to a new apologetic needed to meet the empiricism of the present day.
- 3. Theological.—Here again we must recognise the limits assigned to his work by the author himself. It would be unfair to criticise the book in whole or in part from the standpoint of particular dogmas or "over-beliefs". We are not helped at all to a theology proper, for we are left practically free to link on to our own subconsciousness any "over-belief" about God we prefer. But, at the same time, the book renders a service to religious truth by confirming our faith in the value of religious experience, and offering us a doorway into the eternal and unseen. Insufficient as it may seem to many, yet so far as it goes it is a helpful and refreshing book, and we do not think any one who is in touch with the thought of the present age can read it without being strengthened in whatever faith he holds as to the reality of God, and of His work in the heart of man.

H. WHEELER ROBINSON.

The Credibility of the Book of the Acts of the Apostles: Being the Hulsean Lectures for 1900-1901.

By Frederic Henry Chase, D.D., President of Queen's College, and Norrisian Professor of Divinity, Cambridge. London: Macmillan & Co., 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. xv.+314. Price 6s.

This course of Hulsean Lectures may be regarded as a most helpful and pleasurable introduction to the Commentary which Dr. Chase is preparing for the International and Critical Series. It not only furnishes us with a strong defence of the traditional authorship of Acts, but it also throws fresh light upon many passages in the text of that book. After duly emphasising the importance of Acts, which stands alone as an authority for a period unique in the religious history of mankind, and after a few cautious words as to the ultimate issue of the controversy about the so-called "Western" text, and as to the value of archæological research, we have an indication of the main points which make for the Lucan authorship, and a very just reminder that counter theories are weighted with far greater improbabilities (p. 9 ff.). The external evidence is briefly summarised, and in connexion with the crucial question as to whether the "We" sections bear marks of identity of authorship with the rest of the book, attention is drawn to the minuteness and care with which Sir John Hawkins in his Hora Synoptica has investigated this question. In dealing with this subject of language Dr. Chase is not forgetful of another English book, Hobart's Medical Language of St. Luke, and he remarks that although it has been published nearly twenty years it has, he believes, remained unnoticed by the assailants of the traditional view of the third Gospel and Acts. The only direct notice of which we are aware is contained in Dr. Schmiedel's recent article "Luke" in the Encyclopædia Biblica, vol. iii.,

where he remarks that "a medical language" was discovered by Hobart in the third Gospel and in Acts, but this is all the notice which he vouchsafes, and no attempt whatever is made to gauge the value of Dr. Hobart's argument, which has received the warm endorsement of Dr. Zahn, and still more recently of Dr. Belser, and of Dr. P. Ewald in his article "Lukas der Evangelist" just published in the new edition of Herzog. In his estimation of Hobart's work Dr. Chase is, however, by no means forgetful of the fact, so carefully considered by Dr. Plummer, that many of the "medical terms" may be attributed to St. Luke's acquaintance with the LXX, but he also agrees with Dr. Plummer in the conclusion that, when all deductions have been made, there remains a body of evidence which he does not hesitate to describe as irresistible.

The problem of the "Sources" next engages the reader's attention (p. 14 ff.). And here Dr. Chase again emphasises the fact that the attempt to discover the written documents out of which Acts was thought to have been elaborated has hitherto completely failed. His own experience in the investigation of such an attempt will be read with interest, and he now naturally asks what "sources" are really available? "Can we, with certainty or with real probability, point to St. Luke's having been brought into contact with those whose testimony taken together will cover the whole field of the Acts?" Among these "sources" Dr. Chase has no hesitation in naming St. Paul himself as the most obvious and important witness, and he refers also to the likelihood of information being gathered from John Mark, or St. Philip, or St. Barnabas, whilst he throws out the further interesting suggestion that the writer of Acts may have met and conversed with St. Peter at Rome (p. 22). Here, to a great extent, Dr. Chase follows on the same lines as those indicated by Zahn and Blass, and the fact that these eminent scholars have no hesitation in deferring to such "sources" may well afford matter for the consideration of those critics, who appear to think that every book connected with St. Luke's writings is to be valued by the number of fancy documents which the author can discover in them.

At this point (p. 26) Dr. Chase is brought face to face with the question as to the relation between Acts and St. Paul's Epistles, and he first notices, as Zahn also notices, the important fact that Acts contains no reference to the composition of any of St. Paul's letters, and shows no sign of their influence, a fact which is in itself strong confirmation of an early date. But, at the same time, he is not concerned to deny that there are discrepancies between the Acts and the Epistles, which perhaps cannot be formally and completely reconciled, while their presence may be fairly explained (p. 27). Reference is made, in the succeeding pages, to two other matters of primary interest, before the text of the book is discussed: (1) Acts i. 8 (pp. 29 and 49) contains, in Dr. Chase's view, the aim and plan of the author. (2) St. Luke (unlike a modern historian) concerns himself primarily with men, a point so strikingly elaborated amongst recent writers by Mr. Rackham, and thus notices of time are often perplexingly indistinct-a point noticed with so much care by Dr. Plummer and Professor Ramsay. Even in the Agricola of Tacitus we have to wait for the last chapter before any note of chronology is given us.

The fulfilment of our Lord's promise of the Spirit naturally finds a foremost place in a book written with the aim just noticed. Here are two points in Dr. Chase's pages which are undoubtedly open to criticism. First, the contention that the words "they were all together in one place" on the day of Pentecost refer to the Temple. Dr. Chase makes out a strong case, but the more we emphasise the important significance which would attach to the Temple as the place where the supreme gift of the Spirit was given, the more strange it becomes that St. Luke does not mention that the place was the Temple. But a more serious question is raised by Dr. Chase's interpretation of ii. 3. He thinks that the manifestation of fiery shapes in the semblance of tongues diffusing themselves on the heads of the Apostles would be a wonder of a different order from the miracles of the New Testament; it would stand alone (p. 34). No doubt; but "a supreme crisis of revelation," as Dr. Chase himself calls it, had been reached, and the more notable the crisis, the more notable might be the manifestation. Space forbids us to discuss the subject further, but we may add that a most interesting suggestion is made by Dr. Chase as to the utterances of the Apostles on this birthday of the Christian Church. It may well be that we may picture them, like Zacharias, breaking forth into "benedictions" such as we find in the rich liturgical store of the Jewish Church, as, e.g., in the Eighteen Benedictions (p. 29).

The second lecture deals with the expansion of the Church, and the question is raised as to how far the record of this expansion satisfies reasonable tests of truthfulness. On the one hand we have the explicit commands of the Lord as to the ultimate goal of the Gospel; on the other hand we have the fact of the silence of these commands as to the action which the Apostles should take in the immediate future (p. 58). At all events we may say that the Apostles could not have fully understood Christ's commands, for after He had spoken "the things concerning the Kingdom of God," they ask: "Dost thou at this time restore the Kingdom to Israel?" (Acts i. 6). The historian then must have either truthfully narrated facts which he had been careful to ascertain, or he must have followed an imagination which had no prophecy or current interpretation to guide it, as these were far too vague and indefinite to be of service. But in St. Peter's first words in Acts Dr. Chase urges that there is nothing to show that his horizon is wider than that of the prophets; he is still preoccupied in the narrow sphere of national hopes: "the promise of the blessing through Abraham's seed to all the world prefaces the assurance 'unto you first God having raised up His servant sent him to bless you'". In all this we may note the signs of a true and faithful portraiture. may be possible, we venture to think, to circumscribe St. Peter's meaning too much, but the argument presented here is full of force, as we shall have occasion again to remark.

Further, the history of the expansion is noteworthy; its apparent casualness, its fragmentariness, afford a strong guarantee of substantial truth; the turning point comes in

a difficulty connected with the charity organisation of the Church; this leads to the clothing of Stephen with the authority of office; he marks indeed a transitional state of things, but it is evident that with his witness and death an inward and an outward change comes over the Church; the disciples are exposed to the hatred not only of the aristocratic and unpopular Sadducees, but also of the party which enjoyed the special reverence of the people (p. 63); and all this stands out in such absolute contrast to the peaceful relations of the first chapters of the book that we find an assurance of the writer's truthfulness in this earliest part of the record.

When, as the result of persecution, the Church is scattered abroad, we have twice mentioned the same word $\delta\iota\epsilon\sigma\pi\alpha\rho\eta\sigma\alpha\nu$, a word Dr. Chase regards as deliberately chosen, to indicate that the regenerate Israel becomes in the providence of God what the unfaithful Israel was meant to become, a Dispersion —among "the nations". As to the peculiar force of this verb in this connexion, to which Dr. Chase thus directs attention, we may compare the remarks of Dr. Zahn (Einleitung, i., p. 71).

Again in this dispersion through the sword, in this second period of the Church's history, the marks of credibility are carefully noticed. The Church becomes the Church of Palestine, but not as we might expect by the chief part in the drama being assigned to St. Peter or at least to an Apostle, but to the obscure Philip; to him too is assigned a further and more significant work, the decisive step of baptising, so far as our knowledge goes, the first Gentile Christian, the Ethiopian eunuch.

We must confess to a feeling of disappointment that in a note (p. 67) Dr. Chase should intimate that the words "the Spirit of the Lord caught away Philip" (viii. 39), do not imply a miraculous disappearance. The strong verb $\eta \rho \pi a \sigma \epsilon \nu$ is scarcely satisfied by reference to an inward impulse, and as Meyer-Wendt notes, it is a very different form of expression from that in v. 29 of the same chapter.

One other event of unique importance, which falls within this same intermediate period, the conversion of St. Paul,

receives careful, although necessarily brief, treatment, and Dr. Chase may justly refuse to attach any importance to the variations in the three different accounts of the conversion, in face not only of the judgment of Dr. Blass and Professor Ramsay, but of Dr. Holtzmann (Apostelgeschichte, p. 71, 3rd edition).

The second division of the book closes, ix. 31, with an emphatic and solemn notice of the peace and growth of the Church in Palestine after Saul's conversion, and the third division opens with what Dr. Chase describes as one of the simple commonplace phrases with which St. Luke sometimes hints at an important background of history, ix. 32 (p. 75); the Apostolic College is broken up, the Christian Dispersion needs guidance and help, and so we are now prepared to follow the movements of St. Peter. The significance of St. Peter's work in Joppa and Cæsarea is graphically emphasised, and with the episode of Cornelius the "Acts of Peter" cease just before the work of Paul commences. St. Luke no doubt knew more, as Dr. Chase reminds us, of St. Peter's ministry, but his purpose in writing is not predominantly biographical, or he would have told us more; he is concerned with the expansion of the Church, and St. Peter in admitting under God typical Gentiles into the Church reached the limits of his characteristic work in the Kingdom (p. 86). We may perhaps venture to supplement these remarks with a passage in Professor Ramsay's St. Paul (p. 378) where he shows that it is obvious that St. Luke has selected facts which bore, not on the expansion of the Church in its entirety, but "on a narrower theme, viz., the steps by which the Church of Jerusalem grew into the Church of the Empire, and the position of the Church in the Empire. Egypt, Ethiopia, and the East and South are therefore excluded from his narrative."

We have before noticed how keenly Dr. Chase is alive to the scarcity of chronological data in Acts, and this is the case, not only with the scarcity but also with the relative uncertainty of this chronology (see note, p. 67). But, however this may be, no one who carefully peruses these earlier pages

of the book before us and those which follow (p. 81 ff.) can fail to see how clearly Dr. Chase enables us to mark the chief turning points in the development and growth of the Faith.

From Cæsarea, the Roman capital of Palestine, we pass to the Syrian Antioch, so soon to become the mother city of Gentile Christendom, and it is but natural that we should ask if that Church was a Gentile Church from the first. Here we come to the only question of textual criticism with which Dr. Chase proposes to trouble us (p. 81).

Are we to read in Acts xi. 20 "Ελληνας or Ελληνιστάς? Certainly the weight of authority seems to be in favour of the latter. But it is urged that "Ελληνας is alone in harmony with the context as antithetical to the previous Ἰουδαίοι. This, however, is not necessarily conclusive, for not only is the real turning point in the mission to the Gentiles marked later, in xiii. 46, but it is possible that the word 'Iovôaîoi may be used in a narrow sense exclusive of Hellenists, as in other passages of the book, and this would be quite consistent with the retention of καί "unto the Grecian Jews also". Dr. Chase suggests, however, that St. Luke wrote or intended to write as in ix. 29 "they spake and disputed with the Grecian Iews" and that a word has dropped out here as in some other passages in Acts. The similarity of the phraseology between ix. 29 and the verse before us had been pointed out by Dr. Hort (Judaistic Christianity, p. 59), but whilst allowing that πρός may have an adversative sense here as in ix. 29, he regards this explanation as less likely than others, because of the absence of any further indication of opposition on the part of the Hellenists. We venture to think that the textual problem is not so simple as Dr. Chase's solution would make it.

The acknowledged success of St. Paul's preaching to the Gentiles in the first missionary journey (Acts xiv. 27), brings us face to face with the great controversy of the Apostolic age as to the terms of Gentile admission to the Church. Dr. Chase apparently has no hesitation in identifying the account of the Council (Acts xv.) with Gal. ii. (although in future we shall have to deal not only with the arguments of Professor

Ramsay, but with those of Dr. Weber of Würzburg as against this identification), and he gives some thoughtful reasons for adopting this position (p. 92), as, e.g., that St. Luke as a Gentile would be essentially unable to enter into what may be called the inwardness of the conflict, while as an outsider he would be able at a later date to write a calm summary of the dispute. Some further noteworthy remarks follow on the genuineness of the letter of the Council, and Dr. Chase sees in its wording a confirmation of the assumption which he does not hesitate to make, that the writer of Acts was known to St. James, and that consequently he would have had ready access to information from the Church in Jerusalem. Dr. Chase warmly advocates Professor Robertson Smith's reference of the difficult words "blood" and "things strangled" to rites current among heathen Semites. These rites are specially prohibited because of their prevalence in Syria (the letter being addressed to Churches in Antioch and Syria), and because of the abhorrence in which they were held by the Jews. We thus have, Dr. Chase further urges, a natural explanation as to any lack of reference to the letter, when St. Paul is answering the questions raised by his Corinthian converts. But the words under discussion are of course open to other interpretations, and Dr. Hort's view of them (Judaistic Christianity, p. 68) will still find favour with many inquirers. In his brief summary of the closing scenes of Acts, it is of interest to note that Dr. Chase justifies his explanation of the expression "the uttermost part of the earth" (i. 8) by Rome with a reference to Psalms of Solomon viii. 16, and that in the final word of the Apostle of the Gentiles, preserved by his friend, "they will hear," he finds a prophecy of the Gospel among "all the nations" (p. 100). It will thus be seen that while Dr. Chase does not touch upon the view of a possible "third treatise," a view which has commended itself to no mean authorities, he recognises that the history of Acts is complete in bringing Paul to Rome, and the two books of St. Luke cover the whole ground as he conceived it, of the history of the origins of Christianity-the Acts of Jesus Christ, the Acts of the Apostles (pp. 52, 53).

The two last lectures are devoted to a most scholarly and interesting examination of the teaching of the two great Apostles St. Peter and St. Paul, and possibly to many readers they will present themselves as the most valuable part of the book. Before examining their wording in detail Dr. Chase fitly asks how the speeches of the two Apostles may have been obtained. In this inquiry it will be noticed that while writing from a conservative standpoint, Dr. Chase does not hesitate to lay great stress upon what he calls the editorial work of St. Luke. As to some of the later speeches, Dr. Chase has some acute remarks on the probability of the method of their transmission. Some kind of shorthand was undoubtedly practised amongst the ancients, and Dr. Chase throws out an interesting suggestion in connexion with a passage in Galen that St. Luke may himself have gained the power of shorthand writing in the course of his medical training (p. 112). The remarks on the probability of St. Peter's knowledge of Greek (p. 214) call for careful attention, and when read in connexion with Mr. F. C. Convbeare's article "Hellenism," in Hastings' Bible Dictionary, it would certainly seem that a strong case may be made out for a widely diffused knowledge of Greek in Palestine in New Testament times, a knowledge by no means confined to the aristocracy or to the rich. It is of course evident that St. Luke had not the same obvious authority for St. Peter's speeches as for St. Paul's, but whilst Dr. Chase acknowledges that he does not wish to lay too much stress upon the similarities between the reported words of St. Peter in Acts, and his written words in his First Epistle, he thinks that the parallel at least suggests that St. Luke's authority for, or his version of, the Petrine speeches passed through St. Peter's hands, and he again refers to the strong probability that the Evangelist and St. Peter may have met at Rome (p. 121). In the pages which follow, the remarkably Judaic setting of St. Peter's words is illustrated in detail. The forms of address, the phrases of appeal, in these speeches may well be instances of the homiletic formulas of the synagogue, and we have expressions which occur in the Kaddish, in the

Eighteen Benedictions, in the Psalms of Solomon. So too the language of these early addresses, like that of the address of St. Paul in Pisidian Antioch, is shown to be closely connected with the current ideas and language of the Messianic hope, and in this connexion two remarkable titles of our Lord Himself naturally come under discussion, and the full significance of the phrase "the Holy and Righteous One" (Acts iii. 14, iv. 27, 30) is strikingly illustrated. The next few pages closely examine another title "the Servant of the Lord," and whilst its connexion with current language, its difference of interpretation among Hebrews and Hellenists, and its adoption in early Christian literature, are not forgotten, its use as a pre-Christian Messianic title is rightly described as most primitive. As we read the carefully balanced judgment of Dr. Chase on the undoubted early and remarkable employment of these various titles we remember that even Dr. Schmiedel was constrained to write: "It is hardly possible not to believe that this Christology of the speeches of Peter must have come from a primitive source" (Encycl. Bibl., i., 48). We are glad to note that Dr. Chase finds room for an examination of the testimony borne by Acts to the historical facts of our Lord's earthly life (p. 141). This has of course been often done with reference to the relation between the New Testament Epistles and the facts of the Gospels, but it is well that recent writers like Dr. Chase and Mr. Rackham should emphasise the connexion between Acts and Gospels in this respect. Here Dr. Chase notes that Acts ii. 22, x. 38, contain the only references in the New Testament outside the Gospels to our Lord's ministry of miracles, and he makes a good point in reminding us that the appeal in this first speech on the day of Pentecost to those who had themselves seen these wonders and signs is full of significance, when taken in connexion with the silence of the other New Testament writers elsewhere: "the naturalness of it here is emphasised by the very absence of anything like it elsewhere". One other point may here be noticed, viz., the conception of a suffering Messiah, and St. Peter's insistance upon it, which Dr. Chase graphically illustrates, in spite of its strangeness, its shamefulness, in spite of the fact that it was so audaciously new. We are so familiar with the conception that we forget its novelty and its offensiveness: "no Jew," says Wernle, "before Jesus had explained Isaiah liii. of a dying Messiah".

What inference does St. Peter draw from the historical facts not only of the Passion and Death, but of the Resurrection and Ascension of Christ? The answer is to be found in the solemn charge with which he closes his Pentecostal sermon, "God hath made him both Lord and Christ, this Jesus whom ye crucified". Both these titles too had a history in the past. But whilst it may be said that the term Lord has its exact shade of meaning determined by the context, here the context undoubtedly raises the ancient title above the sphere of the human and the earthly (p. 157). This part of the book concludes by an apt reminder that St. Peter's addresses differ widely from any one of the Apostolic Epistles (except perhaps that of St. James), inasmuch as they give us an immediate interpretation of the facts of the Christian Creed addressed to Jews at Jerusalem, many of whom had cried "Crucify Him" and had watched the death "upon the tree," whilst the Epistles give us a more matured apprehension and exposition of these facts; here again it is plain that such addresses could not be the invention of the Gentile author of the book, familiar with the fuller teaching of St. Paul, and writing when the peculiar circumstances and the phases of thought which the addresses presuppose had long passed away (p. 159).

The last lecture deals with the witness borne by the speeches of St. Paul. In turning first to the Apostle's witness to Israel, Dr. Chase makes an important point in drawing attention to the fact that whilst in St. Paul's Epistles we have exhortations and arguments specially addressed to Jews (although, of course, as in Romans and I Cor., there are passages in which the Apostle addresses now Jewish and now Gentile converts, a fact which might well be remembered by hyper-critics like Van Manen), yet we have no distinct and detailed example in his writings of the way in which the Apostle preached the Gospel to his fellow

countrymen. The Epistles therefore supply no model on which a romancer could construct a Pauline sermon to Jews (p. 173). Dr. Chase starts from St. Paul's use of the title "Son of God" (Acts ix. 20), and finds here another current and Messianic title invested by St. Paul with a deeper and fuller meaning, and his remarks in this connexion remind us of Dr. Sanday's treatment of the same words in his article "Son of God," Hastings' Bible Dictionary, vol. iv. An attempt has recently been made to show that St. Paul was influenced in his use of the term by pagan associations, but it should be remembered that it is not at Athens before Stoics and Epicureans that he calls Jesus the Son of God, but in the synagogues of the Jews. In the speech at the Pisidian Antioch Dr. Chase adds another to the subtle connexions traced by Professor Ramsay between this speech and the Epistle to the Galatians (pp. 181, 182), and here again, although from an examination of a different verse, he shows with Professor Ramsay that the speech is completely in harmony with the subsequent declaration of Gal. iv. 4. Not the least valuable part of the examination of the Pisidian Antioch address is the way in which Dr. Chase briefly discusses St. Paul's doctrine of justification by faith (Acts xiii. 39), as the issue of Christ's redemptive work and as an answer to the cravings of sinful man for peace with God. So far from this verse presenting itself as an unauthorised addition to the speech (as some critics would fain regard it), it is rather remarkably in keeping when addressed to a Jewish audience, inasmuch as it solves the problem which had so often perplexed the pious Israelite. In all this naturalness of expression Dr. Chase rightly sees a proof that we have before us a very close report of St. Paul's own words, and his remarks upon the pseudepigraphical and apocryphal books of the Jews may well be read in connexion with Dr. Charles' recent editions of some of these books, in which he shows us how sorely the teaching of St. Paul was needed in connexion with this same doctrine of justification before God.

In St. Paul's witness to the pagan world Dr. Chase, like Professor Ramsay, duly emphasises the fact that from beginning to end there is not a single word in the speech at Lystra which stamps it as Christian, and he well reminds us that the speaker's aim for the moment was not to evangelise, but to prevent an act of idolatry (p. 204). But no one can read the narrative in Acts, and the subsequent notice of Lystra, without seeing at the same time that the converts made there were fully instructed in the Christian Faith.

In dealing with St. Paul's visit to Athens Dr. Chase is at issue with Professor Ramsay as to the site of the Apostle's address to those who would know more of his new teaching. But although Dr. Chase argues with great force against the supposition of a formal religious tribunal, we may venture to think that he goes somewhat too far in a counter direction, and that he does not dispose of the difficulties which Professor Ramsay enumerates as attaching to the supposition that the speech was delivered on the summit of the Areopagus, and not before the Court in the Stoa Basileios. In this connexion we may note that a controversy has arisen over the interpretation given by Dr. Chase to the words ώς δεισιδαιμονεστέρους; he regards them as expressive of rebuke not wholly unmingled with contempt; but it is not only difficult to believe that St. Paul would thus commence a speech in which he wished to gain a hearing, but the context (v. 24), where the verb $\epsilon \hat{v} \sigma \epsilon \beta \epsilon \hat{i} \tau \epsilon$ is regarded by him as one result of this δεισιδαιμονία, would certainly suggest that the adjective is used here in a good sense.

Professor Ramsay in his St. Paul (p. 252) has strikingly drawn out how St. Paul, after his visit to Athens, is found at Corinth "wholly absorbed in preaching, attesting to the Jews that the Anointed One is Jesus," and he sees in this expression, unlike anything else in Acts, an indication that at Corinth the Apostle no longer spoke in the philosophic style of his address at Athens. Dr. Chase notes that in I Cor. we have an emphatic assertion of the simplicity of the Gospel (I Cor. ii. 2, etc.), and he also asks whether this may not be accounted for by the Apostle's consciousness that at Athens he had been too eager to gain "the wise after the flesh". If this interpretation of the words in I Cor. is

correct, then Dr. Chase finds in it a strong confirmation of the truthfulness of the historian's account of St. Paul's visit to Athens (p. 234). We have left ourselves no space to do more than mention the searching and admirable examination of the speech addressed to the elders at Miletus, the one among the speeches at which St. Luke himself may well have been present (pp. 234-288). Here Dr. Chase finds not only that the language and the thoughts bear the closest resemblance to the language and thought of St. Paul's Epistles, but that we may discern the same religious temper, and the same combination of human qualities. He is careful too to point out how naturally the attitude of the Apostle towards his journey to Jerusalem (Acts xx. 17 ff.) accords with the tone of Rom. xv. 30, a coincidence so strikingly enforced by Dr. Hort and earlier still by Paley.

One more important point is made by Dr. Chase in his reminder that the evidential value of these several speeches can only be fully appreciated when they are regarded in a series. We have to suppose, if the speeches are not genuine, that not one Pauline speech has been invented, but four, for three of which no pattern is supplied by the Epistles, each appropriate to its alleged occasion, and yet diverse from the other three, each in agreement with what we know of St. Paul's character, and containing subtle and always unobtrusive resemblances to the style and language of the Apostle's writings. This would have been a literary and psychological feat demanding extraordinary dramatic power (p. 292).

There are numerous other points of interest and value in this most helpful volume. But at the same time we must remember that it has not been Dr. Chase's aim to examine all the problems, but to maintain the *credibility*, of Acts. In his Preface Dr. Chase tells us that he has had the highest ideal set before him in his own teachers of the honesty, accuracy, and reverence, which are the essential qualifications of the Biblical critic. The pages which follow show us how successfully he has fulfilled these requirements.

R. J. KNOWLING.

- Zur Genesis der Agada. Beitrag zur Entstehungs- und Entwickelungs-Geschichte des Talmudischen Schriftthums.
- Von Dr. N. I. Weinstein. II. Theil: die Alexandrinische Agada. Frankfurt-a-M.: J. Kaufmann, 1901. M.8.
- Natur und Geist, nach der Auffassung des Alten Testaments. Eine Untersuchung zur historischen Psychologie.
- Von Justus Koeberle, Privatdozent an der Universität Erlangen. München: Oskar Beck, 1901. M.7.

THE former of these two works, from the pen of a learned Iewish writer, forms a welcome and important contribution to the literature of Judaism. The author briefly states the origin and motive of the treatise. Even in his earlier years he perceived that the Talmudical writings, especially the Haggadic portions, contain many Greek expressions whose presence there can be accounted for only on the ground that those who employed them could not otherwise make themselves properly understood. But he further considered that Talmudic teachers had frequent intercourse with Jews who could speak no language but Greek. He was thus convinced that it was of the greatest importance, for the proper investigation of the Talmud, and for determining the period of its formation, to inquire into the views regarding it held by purely Hellenistic Jews who had no direct intercourse with their Palestinian compatriots, and the attitude of the dispersed Israelites to the Talmud. For the solution of this problem, it was obviously necessary to make a special study of the ancient Græco-Judaic religious literature. The execution of the task demanded much time and labour, but these have been ungrudgingly bestowed by the writer who has now presented us with an instalment of his work.

But this, though the second portion of the whole, has been published before the first, for good and sufficient reasons. Here we are at once introduced to the heart of the theme which the author proposed to himself. He first quotes and then examines in detail those passages in the "Wisdom of Solomon," forming one of the books in the Greek Canon of the Old Testament, which refer to what is more fully recorded in the earlier historical books; with these citations from the Alexandrian text he further places before us a number of passages from the Talmud which certainly exhibit striking similarity of thought and language-especially of a homiletical character-to the Greek of the Book of Wisdom. But, as there is hardly any trace of the Mishna, which forms the basis of the Talmud, at the time when the Greek Scriptures were already in use among the Hellenistic Jews at Alexandria and elsewhere, it is inferred that this remarkable likeness between the Alexandrian Greek and the Talmud is due to the dependence of the latter on the former.

Still more remarkable is the resemblance traced in the second chapter between the doctrine regarding the Logos, prevalent among the Hellenistic Jews before the formation of the Talmud, and the teaching contained in the latter concerning the relation between the Creator and the creation, including the place and functions of angels. Indeed, it is distinctly affirmed that the ideas presented in the Talmudic writings regarding angels and other supposed intermediaries between God and men form an exact copy of the doctrine concerning the Logos, as found in Philo; and many passages from the Talmud are cited in proof of the identity.

The third chapter, on the "Minim," forms an ingenious and interesting discussion regarding the precise reference of this term, which is frequently used in Talmudical and Rabbinical writings. Difficulty arises when the attempt is made to define exactly whom we are to understand as indicated by this name. There is general agreement, indeed, that the designation, "Minim," applies to all who reject Jewish Monotheism; but, beyond this point, disagreement begins. Dr. Weinstein contends he has proved that the term cannot

mean Jewish Christians, as some allege, seeing that it was employed before the Christian era to signify others who diverged from orthodox Judaism; and in proof of this he cites an instructive passage from the Talmud (Sandhedrin, x., 5) which runs thus: "Israel had no sooner gone into exile than twenty-four parties of Minim were formed within it". His investigations into this and other passages have convinced him that, in the Talmud, Minim do not mean idolaters, but those who, without repudiating Jewish monotheism, early accepted the doctrine concerning the Logos in some such form as Philo had attributed to Moses, in his remarks on Genesis i. 27. Further research—the results of which are given in this chapter-plainly shows that the Talmudist was well acquainted with the whole doctrines of the Alexandrian school, and thoroughly understood its theosophy, through constant intercourse with Greek-speaking Tews.

The author hopes soon to complete his work by publishing the first part, which will present a view of the Haggada in general, and an account of the learned writers who have contributed to its formation.

The writer of the second treatise has shown his practical sagacity even in the selection of his subject, which, in itself attractive, is made still more interesting to his readers through his lucid style and the orderly arrangement of his materials. The work is essentially an investigation of the way in which the writers of the Old Testament regarded the outer world, as revealed to the human soul by the senses, and the inner world of the human soul itself. The whole thus resolves itself into an investigation of psychic phenomena. But we are reminded that the history of Israel, as distinctively religious, necessarily exercised a determinant influence on the views and the language of the nation as well as the individual. The history of other Semitic peoples, indeed, affords many valuable side-lights which are duly utilised at suitable stages in this work; yet the writer dis-

plays admirable firmness of judgment in keeping constant touch with his main theme, and in giving secondary matters only a subordinate position. An interesting side-remark is the observation that while parallels to the Hebrew בָּבֶּי (soul) and בַּ (heart) are found in other Semitic languages, these present nothing which corresponds to בְּבָּר (spirit), except in later times, when the idea was evidently borrowed from the Old Testament realm of thought.

After two introductory chapters on the lines of investigation to be pursued, and the field to be surveyed, we are asked to keep in view the acknowledged influence exercised on the mind and the character, as well as on the political history, of a people, by geographical position, climate, and the nature of the soil: and to note that the Hebrews formed no exception to this general principle. Situated between the Great Empires in Egypt on the one hand, and in Mesopotamia on the other, Palestine necessarily became, again and again, the scene of conflict between opposing powers on the east and the west; other nations also, more closely adjacent—as the Syrians and Philistines—came into frequent contact or conflict with the Hebrews. The minds of the common people, as well as the historians and the prophets, thus were frequently exercised regarding events in which they played a part. Even more influential, however, on the thoughts and the character of the Hebrews, was their more persistent contact with neighbouring nations from whom they received ideas and impressions-often the worst-which affected their moral and religious conceptions. Mere variety of scene and soil also, within the compass of the Holy Land itself, constrained even unimaginative minds to observe, compare and contrast; while the striking changes of climate, arising from difference of altitude within the comparatively limited area of Palestine, as well as the vicissitudes of the seasons, formed another strong stimulus to mark external nature.

Next we are led to trace the workings of the Hebrew mind, after it has been stirred to action, and to note its peculiarities. Naturally, beginning is made with a contemplation of the

concrete, and not the abstract, and it is remarkable that individual objects seem to have a special attraction for the Hebrew mind; there is little inclination to generalise. Attention is then drawn to the readiness with which the writers in the Old Testament poetically attribute to inanimate objects something of human feeling and affection, so as to regard them, for the time being, as sentient and animated. But emphasis is properly laid on the fact that amidst this frequent figurative investment of natural objects with human thoughts and affections, there is no pantheism, but a reference of all created things to the Creator.

The weaker portion of this work is in the more purely psychological section, where the writer treats of the Old Testament conceptions regarding the human soul itself. Here, certainly, he has to a large extent availed himself of the results presented in the treatises of others on Biblical psychology. But it is disappointing to find that he makes no allusion to such works, in English, as Dickson's Baird Lectures on Flesh and Spirit, or Laidlaw's Cunningham Lectures on the Bible Doctrine of Man. Indeed, he seems to know English works merely through translations which have been made into German (see page 6). What would now be thought, on the other hand, of British or American theologians who have no first-hand acquaintance with works in German?

JAMES KENNEDY.

Die gegenwärtigen Richtungen der Religionsphilosophie in England und ihre erkenntniss-theoretischen Grundlagen.

Von Newton H. Marshall. Berlin: Verlag von Reuter u. Reichard, 1902. 8vo, pp. 136.

Der Weg zu Gott unserm Vater. Eine Einführung ins Vaterunser als Einleitung in die christliche Lehre.

Von Dr. Samuel Jaeger, Inspektor des Tholuckkonvikts, Halle. Halle a.d. S. Verlag der Buchhandlung des Waisenhauses, 1902. Pp. 142.

Judging by the style of this work I should say that the author is an American. The German is very frequently not the German a German would write, though it may not be exactly incorrect. If so, the book is a sort of literary tour de force which, though deserving admiration of a sort, represents a certain waste of effort. Mr. Marshall would have succeeded better in his proper purpose if he had written in English—so it strikes me.

The subject of the book is both interesting and important, and the author has evidently bestowed a great deal of conscientious investigation and thought on it. The list of works referred to in the course of his dissertation and given at the end, though not complete, or pretending to be, is extensive.

After a brief introduction touching on the relation between philosophy of religion and epistemology, on the classification of Weltanschauungen and other points, he goes on to deal with his subject under three great heads entitled "Naturalism," "Objective Idealism," and the "Idealism of Freedom". These heads represent a classification of Weltanschauungen accepted pro tem. from Dilthey, the biographer of Schleiermacher.

The first and second may be taken as self-explanatory; the

third is formulated as follows: "The Idealism of subjectivity (or freedom) has its structure in the relation between the following momenta. The psychologically intuitive or experimental method leads to the assumption first, of a free unitary (einheitlich) spontaneity, as the fact primarily and indissolubly setted by this method; secondly, of responsibility as the fundamental quality of the activity of this individual psychical cause; and thirdly, of the correlation between such free, responsible spontaneous spiritual unities and an absolute personal and free cause."

Under the head of "Naturalism" are expounded the epistemological doctrines of Huxley and Spencer and the religious doctrines of Spencer, Max Müller, J. G. Frazer, Grant Allen, Romanes and Henry Drummond. Under the head of "Objective Idealism" are set forth the epistemology of Bradley and the religious doctrines of Spinoza, Hegel, Bradley and the Cairds: under the third head he treats of the epistemology of Martineau, Professor Campbell, Fraser and Kidd and the religious doctrine of Upton (Hibbert Lectures). The work closes with sections headed, "Theological View," "Changes in Theology," "Summary of Results of the Enquiry," "Empirical Psychology and Mysticism in England".

In the closing summary we are assured that the common element in all the doctrines reviewed consists in the rise of a paradox.

That of Naturalism is the incommensurability of thought and being, *i.e.*, it denies the objective validity of thought and maintains that the actual nature of being must remain ever unintelligible. This paradox, however, is possible only on the assumption that objective validity involves a metaphysical element. Validity of thought, on the other hand, is a matter of epistemology, not of metaphysics, with which it has nothing to do. Hence the ground of the paradox is the absorption of epistemology by metaphysics.

Not otherwise is it with "Objective Idealism". In it also the metaphysical element gives rise to the paradox, that, namely, of stages or degrees of actuality. The objective idealist starts with the subordination of epistemology to metaphysics, and is therefore inevitably landed in the paradox above described.

Thinkers of the third school aim at combining epistemology and metaphysics. Some of them do so quite openly and have accordingly been landed in pronounced metaphysical dualism. Others endeavour to proceed epistemologically, but fail. The outcome is the paradox of metaphysical dualism, instead of a purely epistemological distinction between knowledge and faith.

The results of these paradoxes for religion are obvious. Naturalism dogmatically rejects religion. Objective Idealism leads to various views of religion, but excludes the possibility of a theology with a solid basis. The Idealism of Freedom lands inevitably in a mistaken conception of faith, and without first instituting a scientific investigation into the nature of faith and its possible objects, co-ordinates it and reasoned knowledge (wissen). "Our conclusion, therefore, is that neither of the principles reviewed presents a satisfactory doctrine or philosophy of religion; and that the reason thereof is the untrustworthy nature of their epistemological groundwork, which is really swallowed up by metaphysical elements. Save on a sound epistemological foundation, no scientific philosophy of religion and theology will in the future ever be possible."

The author of this book is the exceptionally able inspector or warden, as we might put it, of the residential hall for theological students at the University of Halle, known as the *Tholuckkonvikt*, so named in memory of Professor Tholuck and his wife—a lady whose noble lineage, cultured bearing and mind were heightened by rare combination of Christian graces.

It is perhaps presumptuous in a foreigner to venture on judging German style; but I cannot avoid saying that I have never come across a German book more characterised by clearness and simplicity of style than this. As regards

movement, transparency and easy precision, it is not unlike a good French production.

The subject is "The Lord's Prayer," treated as an introduction to Christian doctrine. The matter is distributed under three great heads: I. The way through Jesus to God. Faith and Experience; II. The way from God to His Son. Prayer and Fulfilment; III. The way through the Son to the Father. Atonement and Sonship. The work is a reprint in the main of articles which appeared in *Die Reformierte Kirchenzeitung*.

As a brief—all to brief—specimen of the spirit and style of the book, I will quote the closing sentences: "The hidden God, revealed to us through Jesus of Nazareth, drew us invisibly to Himself, nearer and ever nearer, till we suddenly stood on the very brink of the gulf that yawned between Him the Holy One and us the sinners. Then He laid across it a narrow bridge, the cross, over which He bade us follow His Son to Himself, without looking either to the right hand or to the left. And there in Him He gives us the highest and best that He has to give, namely Himself, His fatherly heart and His spirit. Of Him we are born by Him. Through Him we are drawn to Him. In Him we are to live for Him. Of, through and by ourselves we are nothing; everything that we are, we are of, through and for Him. He is all in all. That is our blessedness; that is His glory."

D. W. SIMON.

The Bane and the Antidote, and other Sermons. By the Rev. W. L. WATKINSON. London: C. H. Kelly, 1902. 8vo, pp. 304. Price 3s. 6d.

Mr. Watkinson has published various volumes of sermons before this one, which have attracted deserved attention. Long ago he established his right to rank among the most outstanding preachers of his time, and it is enough to say that this latest volume well maintains his well-earned reputation. The qualities are conspicuous in it which have won so wide an acceptance for his Studies in Christian Character and Work and Experience, his volumes of discourses bearing the titles of The Transfigured Sackcloth, The Blind Spot, and others. The opening sermon, which gives its title to the volume now before us, deals in a noble and penetrating way with the old familiar themes of sin and grace. Among the striking addresses that follow we may refer to those on "The Imagination in Sin," "The Upward Look," "Subpœnaed Witness" (on Deut. xxxii. 31), "The Common Coronation" (1 Peter ii. 7). The subject of the "Reality of the Spiritual Life" is handled in a notable and original way on the basis of Paul's "The life which is life indeed" (I Tim. vi. 19, R.V.), and the well-worn subject of the "Thorn in the Flesh" is dealt with in a very fresh and suggestive fashion under the title "Cut to the Quick". But the book will be read from beginning to end with unflagging interest and with constant edification.

The Teachings of Dante. By Charles Allen Dinsmore. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co., 1902. 8vo, pp. xiv. + 221.

This is a book for which students of the great Florentine will be grateful. It is written in an easy, forcible style, and it is rich in useful matter. It gives us first a series of short, interesting chapters on Dante himself, the modern interest in

him, his outward and his inward life, his characteristics and his place in history. Then comes a section dealing with the "Burden of the Message," including the call of the prophet, the message in its political and religious aspects, and its value. This is succeeded by three divisions which deal more in detail with Dante's thought and teaching, one entitled "The Vision of Sin," a second "The Quest of Liberty," and a third "The Ascent to God". The chapters which make up these distinct parts show wide and appreciative acquaintance with Dante's works, remarkable powers of exposition, and an admirable analytical faculty. The book is full of information, judicious criticism, and literary interest. It deserves to be widely known. Many will find in it what they particularly need, especially in the beginnings of their studies, and what they often fail to get in more elaborate volumes.

Christian Verities. Sermons by the Rev. S. G. Woodrow (of Aberdeen). London: Arthur H. Stockwell. Cr. 8vo, pp. 156. Price 2s. 6d.

This book is an addition to the series known as "The Baptist Pulpit," of which over twenty volumes have already appeared. It is from the pen of a busy city pastor, and consists of a selection of twelve sermons on such subjects as "Faith and Sight," "Christian Certitude," "The Burning Bush," etc. The discourses are catholic in spirit, skilfully constructed, and written in a clear, pointed style. They are practical and profitable in their message, and serve admirably the purposes of edification. There is much good thinking in them, and they arrest the reader not unfrequently by striking sentences. They justify their selection to the honour of a place in the series to which they belong. The strength of their teaching on its doctrinal side as well as its practical is best seen in such discourses as those on "The Just for the Unjust," and "Theories of the Atonement". In the last-mentioned the author attempts a review of the progress of Christian thought, taking Mr. Lidgett's able Fernley Lecture as his basis. survey is brief, but judicious. Justice is done to the services

rendered by the fruitful, though incomplete, contributions of Bushnell, Coleridge and others. The author's own conclusion is that "the life and death of Jesus Christ constitute a perfect satisfaction for sin; that it must be viewed in the light of the Divine Fatherhood and of the Incarnation; and that all theories have contributed some important truths, but that no theory is adequate, because the Atonement contains transcendental elements which surpass our comprehension". In this we cordially agree with him.

Revelation. Introduction, Authorised Version, Revised Version, with Notes, Index and Map. Edited by C. Anderson Scott, M.A. (Camb.) Author of Evangelical Religion Bible Truth, Ulfilas, Apostle of the Goths, etc. Edinburgh: T. C. and E. C. Jack. Pp. 308. Price 2s. cloth; 2s. 6d. leather.

This is another volume of the Century Bible, edited by Professor W. F. Adeney. Mr. Scott has had a peculiarly difficult task in producing a small, portable commentary on a book so full of problems as the Apocalypse. It will be found that he has discharged this task in a way that fulfils the design of the series and provides the help for which many readers will be grateful. The interpretation of the Revelation of St. John has passed through many phases, some of them of a far-fetched order. It has entered of late years on a new stage in its strange course, one that is in some important respects more faithful to the historical method and more fruitful than any of its predecessors, but at the same time one which lends itself very readily to exaggeration and from which too much may be expected. Mr. Scott has informed himself in this last development of the exegesis of the book, and has also given careful attention to the most recent contributions to the solution of the critical and historical questions. He has used his materials with skill, with good sense, and with a very proper regard to the fact that, notwithstanding the loud claims put in by some recent writers in behalf of certain new hypotheses, it has to be confessed

that there is very much that yet remains unsettled and uncertain.

The Introduction is an excellent piece of work, written in a clear and cogent style, and going over a wide and difficult field with a firm and experienced step. A good sketch is given of the history of the book, the different theories of its purpose, and the various schemes of interpretation which have been applied to it. Considerable attention is given to the curious Apocalyptic literature, especially the Book of Enoch, the Assumption of Moses, the Apocalypse of Baruch and the Fourth Book of Esdras. The characteristics of this class of literature, the points in which it differs from prophecy proper and the way in which it helps us in the reading of the Revelation of St. John, are stated in a very capable and informing way. The questions of date, authorship, structure and purpose are discussed with much care and with a steadiness of judgment by no means too frequently shown by writers on this fascinating book. Mr. Scott puts very forcibly the difficulty attaching to the hypothesis of a presbyter John distinct from the Apostle, and criticises with much good sense the theories of Völter, Vischer and others which seek to lighten the book of some of its problems by taking it to be a composite structure, not the product of one hand or one date. Examples of careful, sober handling of passages that try the exegete will be found in the notes on such paragraphs as chaps. vii. 4-8, xi. 1-13, xii., etc. Mr. Scott's volume deserves a good reception.

The Words of Jesus. Considered in the Light of Post-Biblical Jewish Writings and the Aramaic Language. By Gustaf Dalman, Professor of Theology in the University of Leipzig. Authorised English Version, by D. M. Kay, B.D., B.Sc., Professor of Hebrew and Oriental Languages in the University of St. Andrews. I. Introduction and Fundamental Ideas. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1902. 8vo, pp. xiv. + 350. Price 7s. 6d. net.

Messrs. Clark have been well advised in undertaking a translation of Professor Dalman's book. And we are glad

to be able to say that the translation is satisfactory. It appears to be correctly done and to have the merit of being clear and readable. Of the book itself it is happily not necessary now to say much in the way of commendation or in directing attention to it. In its original German it rapidly made its way into the favour of scholars, and this English rendering will win for it a wider audience still. It is indeed indispensable to the student of the New Testament. Not that Professor Dalman's views of things are to be accepted at all points, or that the account which he gives of the outstanding and most distinctive terms is in every case complete. In some things room is left for doubt or dissent, and there are things omitted which we should gladly have seen included. But this does not take much from the value of the studies which Professor Dalman has given to the public. No one can read the discussions in this book on so many of the characteristic terms of the New Testament and the ideas underlying them, without feeling that he has been put upon the proper track and is directed to a peculiarly fruitful field of enquiry. The statements on the origin, literary connexions and usage of such terms in the teaching of our Lord as the "future age or æon," "the World," "Eternal life," etc., are full of interest. Not less suggestive are the expositions of the idea of the Theocracy and the sources and distinctive applications of the various names of God, the meaning of such phrases as "bound" and "loosed in heaven," etc. But of greater interest and importance still are the chapters on the great titles "Son of Man," "Son of God," "Christ," "Son of David". The exposition of the first of these titles deserves particular attention. It forms a much needed corrective to some of the many theoretical, not to say fanciful dissertations on the subject which have been thrust upon our notice lately, few of which give anything like sufficient attention to the sense of the term as it occurs in its various connexions in the Gospels themselves. Professor Dalman's conclusion bears among other things that the sense attached to the term by our Lord is peculiar to Himself; that it connotes humility and suffering as well as majesty; and that the interpretation put upon it by the Hellenistic Synoptists and the primitive Church, "though in the narrower sense inexact, was not erroneous in so far as they found in it a testimony of Jesus to the reality of His human nature". It is of interest also to notice that Professor Dalman has given up the idea to which he was for a time favourably inclined, namely, that "Son of Man" might be a paradoxical term for "Son of God".

The introduction deals in a masterly fashion with the use of Aramaic among the Jews, the literary use of Hebrew, the Semitisms of the Synoptic Gospels, the alleged proofs of a primitive Hebrew Gospel, etc. On all these subjects Professor Dalman has much to say that is to the purpose. His criticisms of the theory of a primary Gospel in the Hebrew language will do much to dispose of that hypothesis. His discussions give us greater confidence in the Greek text as representing the original words. Every one interested in New Testament studies should have this scholarly and suggestive volume at his hand.

S. D. F. SALMOND.

Notices.

THE March issue of the Monatschrift für die Kirchliche Praxis contains good articles on Stellvertretende Leiden by F. N., and Aufgaben der Apologetik by Pfarrer Traub. In the corresponding issue of the Bulletin de Littérature ecclésiastique M. Louis Maisonneuve concludes his papers on "Fidéisme". In the first number of the Indian Church Review for the year we notice a very readable paper by Mr. Eugene Stock on "Bishop Daniel Wilson" and another by the Rev. W. H. Hutton on "The Homes of the Tractarians". An interesting paper is contributed to the April issue of the Wesleyan Methodist Magazine by Frances E. Davison on the "Witness of the Grave-Clothes," bringing out how much there is in Mr. Latham's theory (as stated in his volume on The Risen Master) to explain the conduct of the disciples as described in the Gospels. In the Revue d'Histoire et de Littérature religieuses for March-April M. Jerome Labourt gives the first of what promises to be an instructive series of papers on "Christianity in the Empire of the Persians," and M. Joseph Turmel continues his series on the "Dogma of Original Sin in Augustine" dealing with the nature and propagation of original sin.

The April number of the International Journal of Ethics opens with a paper by Mr. Arthur W. Benn on "The Ethical Value of Hellenism". The drift of the paper may be judged by these statements: "If indeed the question of obligation be once raised we shall have to ask not so much what the Greeks owe to Christianity as what it owes to them:" "Catholicism in its original and only true sense is but the theological expression for universal Hellenic humanity;" "the root-ideas of Pauline theology are only intelligible when interpreted in the light of Plato's metaphysics; "" "the Vol. XII.-No. 5.

ethical value of Hellenism may be defined as its influence in fixing attention on the purely moral side of the popular religion, and in preparing men's minds for the eventual reception of a morality independent of religious sanctions". There are good papers by G. W. Knox of Union Theological Seminary, New York, on "Religion and Ethics," the Rev. J. H. Harley on "The Place of Ethics in the Table of the Sciences," and others. Mr. Knox deals carefully with the positions of Clifford, Huxley, Sidgwick, Romanes, Hæckel, etc., and concludes that "Ethics can be rendered rational only on the assumption that there is a reality deeper than the phenomenal world of sense, truer than the world we know and better". We notice here also a third edition of Professor Adolf Harnack's suggestive discourse on the theological faculties and the history of religion-Die Aufgabe der theologischen Facultäten und die allgemeine Religionsgeschichte.1

In the *Bibliotheca Sacra* for July we have articles on these subjects among others that are of interest—"A Study of Mormonism," by George R. Lunn; "Ad. Harnack's 'Essence of Christianity' and his Critics," by O. Zöckler; "Jehovah's Protest against Altar Service," by M. A. Bulloch.

In the *Presbyterian and Reformed Review* for the same quarter Professor Warfield has an important and searching paper on "Mr. Kenyon and the Textual Criticism of the New Testament". There are also important papers by others, e.g., by E. H. Griffin on "The Epistemological Argument for Theism".

The Church Quarterly Review for July has a number of very readable papers, among which we specially notice the opening one on "The Holy Eucharist," an historical inquiry dealing chiefly with the end of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth centuries, containing much interesting matter. We shall look with expectation for its completion.

In the July number of the American Journal of Theology there are four good papers and some valuable critical notes.

¹ Giessen: Ricker; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. 8vo, pp. 22. Price 6d.

The outstanding article is the first, in which Professor McGiffert of New York deals with the "Origin of High-Church Episcopacy," and brings out in a clear and convincing way how far the High-Church idea has departed from the primitive position.

There are several strong articles in the July issue of Mind, e.g., F. H. Bradley's paper on "Mental Conflict and Imputation," and J. A. Stewart's on the "Attitude of Speculative Idealism to Natural Science," not to speak of others. The critical notes are also of great value, e.g., those on Howison's Limits of Evolution and McTaggart's Studies in the Hegelian Cosmology.

We direct special attention to those articles in the Journal of Biblical Literature, xxi., I, "The Ephod," by T. C. Foote; "Difficult Passages in the Song of Songs," by Paul Haupt; "The Pre-existence of the Messiah," by G. F. Barton; and "The Haskell Gospels," by F. J. Goodspeed. The last is brief, but gives an excellent account of the MS. now in the possession of the University of Chicago, dating from about A.D. 1500, and containing readings of a somewhat distinctively Syrian type of text.

The April and July issues of the Journal of Theological Studies contain various papers of importance. In April, the Rev. P. N. Waggett writes on "The Manifold Unity of Christian Life," endeavouring to vindicate the proper and inseparable connexion of the inward and the outward in the origin of the heavenly things, the Incarnation, the sacramental doctrine concerning "events in the Church which extend to us the life of Christ," spiritual experience, character, and the practice of obedience. An interesting paper follows by the Rev. G. H. Box on "Jewish Antecedents of the Eucharist". Mr. Box concludes that the true Jewish antecedent of the Christian Sacrament is not the Passover, but the Kiddash. He thinks this is supported by the negative testimony of the Fourth Gospel, the order of the elements in the true text of Luke xxii., Paul's indirect allusions, and by the Didaché. Besides a number of valuable notes on questions of historical interest ("English Mass-Books in the Ninth

Century," "A Synod at Cæsarea in Palestine in 393," etc.) by various hands, there is also a learned article by the Rev. C. H. Turner on "The Genuineness of the Sardican Canons," in which the adverse arguments of Dr. Friedrich of Munich are criticised. In July, Mr. Burkitt contributes an article on the "Date of the Codex Bezae". He admits that the date does not much affect our view of the value of the Codex, but thinks its historical interest is increased if it is put, as he argues, as a product of the times of Leo the Great and Apollinaris Sidonius. The argument is acute.

We have also pleasure in noticing these publications: Seeing the King in his Beauty, 1 a series of short, devout chapters by the Rev. W. Griffiths, M.A., on the reign of Christ and the fulfilment of its programme, written on the supposition that the promised Second Advent came to pass in the generation to which Christ preached on earth, and that this Advent was the "commencement of our Lord's abiding Presence among men"; The Expositor, 2 sixth series, vol. v., providing as usual abundant matter for the minister and the student, always interesting and sufficiently varied to suit different tastes-containing important articles by the late Professor A. B. Davidson on "Jacob at Peniel," Professor W. M. Ramsay on "The Jews in the Græco-Asiatic Cities," Professor Mayor on "A Puritan and a Broad Churchman in the Second Century" (Tertullian to wit), Professor Rendel Harris on "Some questions in Textual Criticism," etc.; The Message of Man,3 "a book of ethical Scriptures," as its secondary title bears, collected with much care and good taste by Stanton Coit, Ph.D., from many sources-a small volume, most tasteful and attractive in form, and furnishing on every page choice matter, gathered from the great minds of all countries and times, which will profit and stimulate the reader; Geschichte des jüdischen Volkes im Zeitalter Jesu Christi, Register zu den drei Bänden,4 an in-

London: Elliot Stock, 1902. Cr. 12mo, pp. vi. + 197. Price 2s.

² Edited by the Rev. W. Robertson Nicoll, M.A., LL.D. London: Hodder and Stoughton, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. 475. Price 7s. 6d.

[&]quot;London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co., 1902. Pp. 340. Price 2s. net.

⁴ Leipzig: Hinrichs, 1902. 8vo, pp. 101.

dispensable addition to the third edition of Professor Emil Schurer's important History, prepared with great care and enabling the reader to lay his hand easily upon any section of the work he wishes to consult; Die Chorale Julian's von Speier zu den Reimoffizien des Franziscus- und Antoniusfestes,1 and des Basilius aus Achrida Erzbischofs von Thessalonich bisher unedierte Dialoge,2 two publications forming the sixth and seventh parts of the important series issued by the Munich Seminar for Church History, both of considerable historical interest, and carefully edited the one by Dr. J. E. Weis, the other, which is a contribution to the history of the Greek Schism, by Josef Schimdt; Die Weisheit der Brahmanen und das Christentum,3 an exposition and critique of the Vedânta Philosophy by Johannes Kreyher dealing in an able and well-instructed way with the main points in the teaching of the philosophy on the Being of God, the origin of the world, the human Soul, the redemption of man, and the things of the End, a concise and instructive statement of a difficult subject, forming part of the fifth year's issue of the series edited by Professors Schlatter and Cremer under the title of Beiträge zur Förderung Christlicher Theologie; Ausgewählte Märtyreracten, a collection of writings, including the Martyrdom of Polycarp, the Acts of Karpus, Papylus and Agathonike, the Martyrdom of Ptolemaeus and Lucius, The Acts of Justin, the Martyrs of Lyons, the Acts of the Scilitan Martyrs, and other sources for the History of the Martyrs, edited in a painstaking way in the Greek and Latin texts by Licentiate Rudolf Knopf of Marburg—a handy and scholarly volume; Ausgewählte Märtyreracten und andere Urkunden aus der Verfolgungszeit der Christlichen Kirche,5 a collection of twenty-two pieces, covering much

¹ München: Lentner, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. viii.+4+xxxviii. Price M.2.6o.

² München: Lentner, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. viii. + 54. Price M. 1.60.

³ Gütersloh: Bertelsmann; London: Williams & Norgate. Pp. vi. 180. Price 3s.

⁴ Tübingen und Leipzig: J. C. B. Mohr; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. 8vo, pp. ix. + 120. Price M.2.50.

⁵ Berlin: Duncker, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. x. +259. Price M.4.

the same ground as Licentiate Knopf's volume, but differing somewhat in the writings included (e.g., the Acts of Paul and Thecla, the Passion of St. Irenaeus, the Acts of the Disputation of St. Achatius, two Libelli of the year 250, etc.), edited with a Preface, numerous notes and ample indices, by Dr. Oscar von Gebhardt, a book which the student of the history of the Primitive Church will value greatly; a third edition of the Rev. Hugh Mackintosh's Is Christ Infallible and is the Bible True?1; a new volume of the tasteful "Helps Heavenward Series," consisting of a series of devout, thoughtful, and admirably written papers by Professor George G. Findlay, D.D., on The Things Above,2 the subjects selected being such as these-"Coming to Mount Zion," "Serving and Waiting," "Maran Atha," "The Ascension of Jesus," etc.; the first instalment of a new historical series, Opuscles de critique historique, which promises to be of value, consisting of the Regula Antiqua Fratrum et Sororum de Pænitentia 3 (the Third Order of Saint Francis), carefully edited by M. Paul Sabatier from a manuscript numbered XX in the Library of the Convent of Capristan in the Abbruzzi; Les Serments Carolingiens de 842 à Strasbourg 4—a learned dissertation by Adolphe Krafft, on an interesting and very difficult subject, going into ethnographical and linguistic discussions which challenge the consideration of experts in Frankish history, geography, and archæology, and in Romanish and Teutonic philology; A Critical and Historical Enquiry into the Origin of the Third Gospel,5 by P. C. Sense, M.A., a book of the same kind as the previous publication in which the author set himself the task of proving that the Fourth Gospel was compiled from the writings of Cerinthus, Valentinus and others, characterised by the same perverted ingenuity, the same contempt for ordinary historical and critical inquiry, the same scorn for

Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1902. 8vo, pp. xxviii.+723. Price 6s. net.

² London: Charles H. Kelly, 1901. Demy 16mo, pp. 256. Price 2s 6d.

³ Paris: Fischbacher, 1901. 8vo, pp. 30.

⁴ Paris: Leroux, 1901. 8vo, pp. 147. Price Fr.3.50.

^b London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. 8vo, pp. xvi. +604. Price 7s. 6d.

the men who have the best title among us to the honourable name of scholar, and professing to have established the theory that the Third Gospel is a compilation from the Marcionite Gospel and the Apocryphal Gospels; Words of Faith and Hope! —a collection of papers by the late Bishop of Durham (most of which have been previously published in separate form, but which are issued now, in accordance with what appears to have been the writer's design, in a single volume), full of Dr. Westcott's genial and hopeful spirit, and dealing in an earnest and instructive way with such topics as "Disciplined Life," "Christian Growth," "Voices of the Living Spirit," "Labour Co-operation," etc.; Confession and Absolution, Report of a Conference held at Fulham Palace, on 30th and 31st December, 1901, and 1st January, 1902, Edited by Henry Wace, D.D., Chairman of the Conference,2 a welcome and seasonable publication, carefully edited by Dr. Wace, which helps much to a better understanding of the precise position of the different parties in the Anglican Church on these important points of doctrine, and brings out a remarkable measure of agreement on two questions of great interest—the meaning of our Lord's words in St. John's Gospel ("Whosesoever sins ye remit," etc.), and the permission given by the formularies of the Church to the practice of confession and absolution to a certain effect and in certain circumstances; Some Notes on the Conference held at Fulham Palace in October, 1900, on the Doctrine of Holy Communion and its Expression in Ritual,3 by the Rev. N. Dimock, A.M., an able and candid review of the points debated at the Round Table Conference, supported by a great wealth of learning, bringing out into full view the teaching of the great English divines of earlier times, and intended to lead to a better understanding of what the Catholic and Reformed conceptions of the Eucharist and

¹By the late Brooke Foss Westcott, D.D., D.C.L., sometime Lord Bishop of Durham. London: Macmillan & Co., 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. x. + 212. Price 4s. 6d.

² London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1902. 8vo, pp. viii. + 112. Price 3s. net.

³ London: Elliot Stock, 1901. 8vo, pp. 145. Price 4s. net.

the connected Ritual really are; A Lamp unto my Feet 1—a volume by the authoress of Westminster Cloisters, etc., giving some devout and helpful answers to questions that may suggest themselves to reverent and inquiring minds regarding the purpose of the Bible, the way in which it should be used, the relation of faith, obedience and prayer to the proper and profitable study of the Word of God, etc.

Messrs. Williams & Norgate will publish next October the first number of a new Quarterly to be known as The Hibbert Journal, and to be issued under the sanction, and with the support of, the Hibbert Trustees. It will be devoted to the discussion of Religious, Theological and Philosophical subjects, and its pages will be open to writers of ability and learning, irrespective of the particular doctrines they may be known to support or to oppose. The Journal will be avowedly liberal in character; under liberalism being understood impartiality to every seriously held point of view in the religious world, whether in the orthodox forms of historical Christianity, or in the forms of those who dissent from them. It will be an organ of the broadest possible catholicity. The Editors (Messrs. L. P. Jacks and G. Dawes Hicks) will be assisted by an editorial board consisting of scholars of the most various schools of thought. Amongst the latter are the Deans of Ely and Durham, Dr. John Watt, Professor Cheyne, Dr. Drummond, and Mr. Montefiore, whilst Sir Oliver Lodge, Professor Gardner and Professor Muirhead will represent science and philosophy.

¹ By M. Bedder (Mrs. Horace Porter). London: Elliot Stock, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. vii. + 144. Price 2s. 6d. net.

Record of Select Literature.

L.—OLD TESTAMENT.

- Peters, N. Der jüngst wieder aufgefundene hebräische Text des Buches Ecclesiasticus. Untersucht, hrsg., übers. u. m. krit. Noten versehen. Freiburg i. B.: Herder. Cr. 8vo, pp. + 92, 447. M.10.
- HARPER, Rev. Andrew. The Song of Solomon. With Introduction and Notes. (Cambridge Bible for Schools and Colleges.) Cambridge: University Press. Cr. 8vo, pp. li. + 9o. 1s. 6d. net.
- STRACHAN, Rev. James. Hebrew Ideals from the Story of the Patriarchs. A Study of the Old Testament Faith and Life. Part First (Gen. xii.-xxv.). Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark. London: Simpkin. Cr. 8vo, pp. 204. 2s.

RIEDEL, W. Alttestamentliche Untersuchungen. 1. Heft. Leipzig: A. Deichert Nachf. 8vo, pp. v. + 103. M.2.

- JASTROW, jr. M. Die Religion Babyloniens u. Assyriens. Vom Verf. vollständig durchgeseh. u. durch Um-u. Ueberarbeitg. auf dem neuesten Stand der Forschg. gebrachte deutsche Uebersetzg. (In etwa 10 Lfgn.) 1 Lfg. Giessen: J. Ricker. 8vo, pp. v. + u. 1-80. M.1.50.
- BOEHMER, J. Der Alttestamentliche Unterbau des Reiches Gottes. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs'sche Buchh. 8vo, pp. iv. + 236. M.4.5o.
- HAPPEL, O. Das Buch des Propheten Nahum, erklärt. Würzburg. 8vo, pp. vii. + 106. M.3.
- Ziegler, L. Die Königsgleichnisse des Midrasch beleuchtet durch die römische Kaiserzeit. Breslau: Schles. Buchdruckerei, etc. 8vo, pp. xxxii. + 456 u. cxcii. M.10.

Lévi, L. L'Ecclésiastique ou la Sagesse de Jésus, fils de Sira. Texte original hébreu, édité, traduit et commenté.
II. Paris: Leroux. 8vo, pp. lxx.+217.

MÜLLER, E. Der echte Hiob. Hannover: F. Rehtmeyer.

8vo, pp. 40. M.1.50.

Pelt, J. B. Histoire de l'Ancien Testament. D'après le manuel du Dr. Æ. Schöpfer. 3e édition revue et augmentée. Paris: V. Lecoffre. 2 vols., 12mo, pp. lii. + 358 et 476. Fr.6.

OLD TESTAMENT ARTICLES.

FOOTE, T. C. The Ephod. Journal of Biblical Literature, xxi., 1.

HAUPT, Paul. Difficult Passages in the Song of Songs. Journal of Biblical Literature, xxi., 1.

BARTON, G. F. Pre-existence of the Messiah. Journal of Biblical Literature, xxi., 1.

Jacobs, Joseph. Existent Representations of Ark of the Lord. Jewish Quarterly Review, July 1902.

MARTIN-FAVENG, G. Ésaïe vii. 14, et Matthieu i. 22 seq. Revue de Théologie et des Questions religieuses, Juillet 1902.

II.—NEW TESTAMENT.

MEYER, K. Prolog des Johannesevangeliums. Nach dem Evangelium erklärt. Leipzig: A. Deichert Nachf. 8vo, pp. iii. + 101. M.1.40.

Simon, Th. Der Logos. Ein Versuch erneuter Würdigg. e. alten Wahrheit. Leipzig: A. Deichert Nachf. 8vo,

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RECORD OF SELECT LITERATURE

Recent Theories respecting the Third Gospel.

During the last twenty years controversy as to the Gospel history has become less predominantly occupied with the Johannine problem. The Synoptic problem has attracted more and more attention; and, although theories respecting the Fourth Gospel still continue to be discussed, as is shown (among other works) by Wendt's recent inquiry into its genesis and historical value,1 yet it is discussions respecting the Synoptic Gospels which, in this department of Biblical Criticism, occupy the larger portion of the field. And, on the whole, it is the Third Gospel which has received the largest amount of attention and criticism. The characteristics of the Third Gospel might be sufficient explanation for this. To a considerable extent it combines the points of special interest which are conspicuous in the First Gospel and in the Second, while it has not a few points of great interest which it shares with no other Gospel. But this is by no means the whole of the explanation as to the prominent place which the Third Gospel has taken in controversies respecting the contents of the Gospel narratives. In the sphere of Textual Criticism attention has been of late more and more directed to that type of text which is called sometimes "Western" and sometimes "Syro-Latin," but which is best styled, as by Kenyon in his excellent Handbook,2 the "δ-text". This symbol is short; it serves to remind us that the chief repre sentative of the text is Codex D; and it commits us to nothing as to the locality in which the text originated or prevailed. Seeing that Codex D contains both of the writings attributed to S. Luke, and that the phenomena which these

¹ The Gospel according to St. John, by H. H. Wendt. T. & T. Clark 1902.

² Handbook to the Textual Criticism of the New Testament, by F. G. Kenyon. Macmillans, 1901.

two writings exhibit are of the utmost importance for the solution of the questions connected with the δ -text, this also has caused the Third Gospel to occupy a considerable space in recent discussions bearing upon New Testament criticism. Of the two writings commonly assigned to S. Luke, Acts seems to be receiving the larger amount of attention; but the Third Gospel of necessity receives a good deal. It will be worth while to look at some of the leading theories which have recently been put forth respecting the Third Gospel, and attempt to come to some conclusion as to whether we seem to be approaching finality with regard to any important questions.

It will be convenient to speak of it by the name which it has borne for so many centuries. "Luke" is shorter than "Third Gospel"; and the latter designation leads to no adjective, such as "Lucan," and an adjective is sometimes wanted. "Luke" and "Lucan," therefore, need not be objected to as question-begging names. At the same time the present writer ventures at the outset to express his conviction that these terms, when applied to the Third Gospel and to Acts, are not only convenient but correct. Nothing that he has read during the last eight years has led him to alter the views which he published in 1896 in the International Critical Commentary on S. Luke, to the effect that both these writings, in their entirety, are rightly assigned to "the beloved physician," the companion of S. Paul. On the other hand, he has read a good deal which has tended to confirm these views.

It would perhaps be rash to say that, if measured by quantity, more has been put forth of late in favour of the Lucan authorship than against it; and no useful purpose would be served by endeavouring to form any such estimate. Indeed the amazing article on "Gospels" in the second volume of the Encyclopædia Biblica is so lengthy that it alone would go a long way towards making the amount of adverse argument exceed the amount of support. But if criticism is

¹ Edited by T. K. Cheyne and J. S. Black. A. & C. Black, 1901.

estimated by its sobriety and solidity, rather than by the number of words used in expressing it and the confidence with which it is advanced, the balance will probably be found to be very much more in favour of traditional beliefs respecting the authorship of these writings than of this or that speculation which has been put forward on the subject during the last twelve or fifteen years.

It is a little over twelve years since Bishop Lightfoot quoted with approbation the opinion of Renan that "the author of the Third Gospel and the Acts was verily and indeed (bien réellement) Luke, a disciple of St. Paul"; 1 and also Renan's condemnation, as untenable, of the view that the first person plural of the later chapters of Acts is derived from some earlier document inserted by the author; on the ground that these portions are identical in style with the rest of the work.2 On this the Bishop remarks, "Such an expression of opinion, proceeding from a not too conservative critic, is significant: and this view of the authorship, I cannot doubt, will be the final verdict of the future, as it has been the unbroken tradition of the past".3 Had Dr. Lightfoot lived to the present time, one feels confident that he would have seen no reason to revoke or modify this very decided expression of opinion; and one has the less hesitation in saying this, when one finds that several years later Dr. Sanday gives as his own conviction "that, except for the Pauline epistles, as strong a case can be made out for the traditional authorship of the Third Gospel and the Acts as for that of any other book of the New Testament ".4

But plenty has been written in the last few years in quite another direction.

On the other side of the Atlantic a series of New Testamen

Les Apôtres, p. xviii.; English translation, p. 12. Trubner.

² Les Évangiles, p. 436: see also the Introduction to Les Apôtres; English translation, pp. 7, 8.

^{*}Essays on the Work entitled Supernatural Religion, p. 291. Macmillan, 1880.

⁴Book by Book, p. 397. Isbister, 1893. He expresses a similar opinion in his Bampton Lectures, p. 279.

Handbooks is being edited by Shailer Mathews of the University of Chicago; and one of the first to be published was an Introduction to the New Testament by B. W. Bacon, D.D., Professor in Yale Divinity School. Apparently it is intended for the use of students at Universities and Theological Colleges; but it aims at getting ahead of what has been established or admitted as probable, and therefore is designedly speculative. The writer says in his Preface: "I have not been deterred from presenting views which are peculiar to myself when these seemed best to set forth the results toward which critical science is tending". On the question before us he is confident that the Third Gospel is not the work of S. Luke. The "we" sections of Acts are part of a Diary kept by a companion of S. Paul, "who can scarcely have been other than Luke". "But the first person of Luke i. 1-4, Acts i. 1 is not necessarily the Diarist." Then why did the writer of these two prefaces leave the "we" in the portions of the Diary which he embodied in his work? He shrank, we are told, "from obliterating the most fascinating characteristic of the Diary". Till some better explanation than this is found of the first person plural in these sections of Acts, sober criticism will retain the traditional and perfectly satisfactory explanation, that the "I" in the prefaces to Gospel and Acts is one of those who make up the "we" in the latter part of Acts; in other words, that the writer says "we" when he is present, and "they" when he is not. We are told that "we have need of more than the retention of the first person in the Diary sections, and a tradition, probably based upon it, to make Lucan authorship of the whole easy to accept": to which we reply that we have a good deal more than the retention of the first person (e.g., a style, details, points of view, etc., entirely in harmony with what is known about S. Luke, as a physician, a man of culture, and the liberalminded disciple of the liberal-minded Apostle), and that there is no evidence that the early and uniform tradition of the Lucan authorship grew out of the belief that the "we" sections were written by Luke. That theory would be, not indeed probable, but credible, if we had only Acts to deal

with. But there is the fact that, quite independently of Acts, the Third Gospel is unanimously attributed to S. Luke; and the evidence for the Gospel is at least as early as that for the second treatise. There is nothing to indicate that belief about Lucan authorship spread, first from the "we" sections to the whole of Acts, and then from Acts to the Third Gospel. The evidence of Irenæus, the Muratorian Fragment, Clement of Alexandria, and Tertullian, is alike free from any such indication. It will suffice to quote once more the evidence of Irenæus. "Now if any one reject Luke, as if he did not know the truth, he will manifestly be casting out the Gospel of which he claims to be a disciple. For very many and specially necessary elements of the Gospel we know through him, as the generation of John, the history of Zacharias, the coming of the angel to Mary, the exclamation of Elizabeth, etc." (III. xiv. 3); which shows that Irenæus regarded the Lucan authorship as unquestionable. Some people might doubt whether Luke had the authority of an Evangelist; but no one could deny that he was the writer of the Gospel which bore his name. Dr. Bacon follows Jülicher 1 in talking of "the silence of Papias"; as if it were possible to determine from the few fragments of Papias that are extant what subjects he did not mention in the main portions which have perished! Lightfoot has shown that there is reason to believe that Papias did write about Luke; 2 and this belief is shared (on different grounds) not only by Dr. Salmon,3 whom Dr. Bacon would no doubt class with B. Weiss as "conservative," but by Hilgenfeld, who can scarcely be placed in such a category. Jülicher, it may be added, denies the Lucan authorship, on grounds which are either unproved assertions, as that the Third Gospel and Acts are equally remote in time from the subjects which they narrate, or may fairly be called purely subjective, as that the idealising of the Apostolic Age

¹ Einleitung in das N. T., § 27, 3. Leipzig, 1894.

² Supernatural Religion, pp. 186, 200.

³ Historical Introduction to the Study of the Books of the N. T., pp. 91 92, ed. 5. Murray, 1891.

which we find in Acts is not such as would be found in a contemporary enthusiast (p. 262).

This last criticism may be regarded as typical of the school and country from which it comes. Dr. Sanday has expressed regret that "work on the Acts has hitherto been almost entirely in the hands of the Germans; and although some progress has been made and more reasonable views are beginning to prevail, even in Germany there is at present something like a deadlock, and I strongly suspect that with the methods on which the inquiry has been pursued a deadlock is inevitable. . . . The fault seems to lie in the standard by which the writer of the book is judged. . . . It is an unreal and artificial standard, the standard of the nineteenth century rather than the first, of Germany rather than of Palestine, of the lamp and the study rather than of active life. . . . To burrow beneath the surface is a specialty of the Germans. It is one which they have exercised with excellent results. But it is another thing to require the gifts of a German Professor in an early Christian situated like the author of the Acts "1

One of the latest writers on the subject makes a similar and equally just remark on the kind of criticism which leads some modern writers to reject the Lucan authorship of the Third Gospel and of Acts, and to regard the writer of those books as an untrustworthy witness. To read this criticism, he says, "one would suppose that no reliance can be placed on a writer who does not reach a modern academic ideal, who does not attain to that fulness and accuracy which we expect nowadays from the conscientious writer of an historical or biographical monograph—an exhaustive collection of facts, and a critical use of authorities. But if we try to form a living picture of the possibilities of the writer, we shall look for, and I venture to say that we shall desire, no such laboured precision." He admits that in S. Luke's work we find a want of proportion which is not in accordance with

 $^{^{1}}$ Inspiration : The Bampton Lectures for 1893, pp. 320, 321. Longmans, 1893.

modern literary ideas. And yet, "considering the area of events over which it travels, it gives a picture of the characters of the chief actors and of the progress of events infinitely more instinct with life and movement than a scientific presentation of the history could have done".1 It is too often assumed that those whose critical studies lead them to conclusions which are in harmony with traditional views, are not only "conservative" but "apologetic," by which is meant (and sometimes stated) that they are prejudiced and obscurantist, if not consciously unfair; and that while professing to employ critical methods, they are really afraid of, and hostile to, everything of the kind. Unworthy charges of this kind can hardly be made against a writer whose candour and courage have produced the most elaborate and carefully weighed indictment of the genuineness of 2 Peter that has up to the present time been penned.2

But it is not necessary to go either to America or to Germany for criticism which contends that Luke the beloved physician is not the author of the writings which early and unanimous tradition has assigned to him. One may pass over with very brief mention the volume recently produced by Mr. P. C. Sense on the Gospel according to S. Luke. A writer who contends that not Jesus of Nazareth, or even Paul of Tarsus, but Irenæus, Bishop of Lyons, is the real founder of Christianity, who assigns Codex B to the ninth century and is inclined to believe that Codex & was really forged by Simonides in a monastery at Mount Athos about 1840, is not one who can claim a hearing from busy workers, whose impatience will give place to indignation when they find that again and again he thinks it fitting to bring accusations of dishonesty against such writers as Dr. Sanday and Bishop Westcott. His theory is that our S. Luke was published between A.D. 168 and 177, that it "was compiled from the writing used by the sect of the Marcionites, known as the Marcionite Gospel, and from the writings of minor apostles,

¹ The Credibility of the Book of the Acts of the Apostles, being the Hulsean Lectures for 1900-1901, by F. H. Chase, D.D. Macmillan, 1902.

² Hastings' Dictionary of the Bible, vol. iii., pp. 796-818.

known as the Apocryphal Gospels," and that the Marcionite Gospel was published in Pontus between A.D. 100 and 150, its author being Luke, Lucanus, or Lucianus the Marcionite. There are other works on the subject far more worthy of serious consideration.

It will suffice to take two books of recent date, coming to us from America and Scotland, as fairly representative: one by Professor A. C. McGiffert,2 the other by Mr. James Moffat.3 Dr. McGiffert seems to be impressed by the unanimous testimony of antiquity that Luke was the writer of the Third Gospel and of Acts, but he refuses to identify this Luke with the Luke known to history as the beloved physician, thrice mentioned by S. Paul. Luke, we are told, was no uncommon name, and towards the end of the first century there may have been many Christians called Luke. This position, which is not a common one, ignores the fact that some of the earliest witnesses expressly attribute these writings to Luke the physician; and, as Renan pointed out long ago, there is no sufficient reason why the Church of the second century should have assigned two such important works (the two longest in the New Testament) to so little known a person, except the fact that he was known to have been the author of them. This position also ignores, as do all denials of the Lucan authorship, the very substantial amount of confirmation which the traditional view receives from the medical language of S. Luke. Dr. Hobart's well-known book on the subject was published twenty years ago; 4 and, so far as the present writer is aware, it has never been seriously answered. It is easy to pooh-pooh it; and it is not difficult to show that Dr. Hobart has considerably, perhaps very seriously, over-

¹ The Origin of the Third Gospel, a Critical and Historical Enquiry, by P. C. Sense, M.A. Williams and Norgate.

² A History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age, by Prof. A. C. McGiffert, Ph.D., D.D. T. & T. Clark, 1897.

[&]quot;The Historical New Testament, a New Translation, with Prolegomena, etc., by James Moffatt, B.D. T. & T. Clark, 1901.

⁴ The Medical Language of St. Luke, by the Rev. W. K. Hobart, LL.D. Longmans, 1882.

stated the case, by including in his long list of medical and quasi-medical words a large number which Luke would have been at least as likely to get from the Septuagint as from medical works or lectures. But even if nine-tenths of his instances were set aside as doubtful, the remaining tenth would form solid evidence that the writer of these two books was a medical man. It is perhaps partly because of its manifest exaggeration that Dr. Hobart's work has not made the impression which it should have done; and, if so, it is one more instance of the nemesis which sooner or later commonly overtakes exaggeration. But those who have convinced themselves, on whatever grounds, that the beloved physician is not the author of these two documents will not make their position secure until they have explained how it comes to pass that precisely these two books contain an amount of phraseology which is common to them and to Greek medical writers, such as cannot be found in any other writings in the New Testament. As J. Weiss remarks, this phraseology can best be explained as reminiscences of Hippocrates, Aretæus, Dioscorides, and as medical termini technici (Galen). Specially remarkable is the fact, to which Lagarde (Psalt, juxta Hebr. Hieronymi, 165 f.; cf. Mittheilungen, iii., 355) has called attention, that the Preface of Luke is a direct imitation of the opening words to the Materia Medica of Dioscorides. Now, seeing that this medical writer comes from Anazarbus in Cilicia, and that according to Nicolai (Gr. Lit. G., ii., 371) he wrote in the time of Nero, this tells decidedly in favour of the Gentile Christian Luke with his Cilician connexion. Cf. Hippocrates, De Prisc. Med.: ὁκόσοι ἐπεχείρησαν περὶ ἰητρικής λέγειν ή γράφειν. Dr. Moffat's learned book contains plenty of information respecting German and other writers who, during the last ten or twelve years, have expressed views adverse to Luke's authorship of the Gospel, and it need not be repeated here. Whatever value these views may have in pointing out difficulties which require discussion, they fail to give an adequate explanation of the facts

¹ Meyer-Weiss, Gottingen, 1892, p. 274.

insisted on above: (1) the early and unanimous tradition; (2) the "we" sections in Acts; (3) the medical language and other features which confirm the primitive tradition.

But if America has given us two critics who refuse to assign to Luke the physician the two writings which primitive Christianity unhesitatingly declared to be his, Scotland again has produced an advocate of the first rank, who has not merely restated old and valid arguments with new vivacity and power, but has brought to bear upon the points of controversy a wealth of antiquarian and topographical knowledge, especially with regard to Asia Minor and Roman administration, which is possessed by no one else. By means of this knowledge, the reality of which is beyond dispute, Professor Ramsay endeavours to show that in the writings attributed to Luke we have the work of an historian, who is not only competent but excellent, who was a companion of S. Paul and a medical man, and who is unquestionably the Luke whom the Apostle mentions three times in his Epistles. With the trifling qualification that, in his enthusiasm, he perhaps sometimes rather overestimates the great merits of Luke as a writer of history, the argument as a whole comes as near to demonstration as arguments about historical problems can be expected to do. The task of those who on critical grounds dispute the Lucan authorship has been very seriously increased since his chief works appeared. The number of editions which have been called for is welcome evidence of the amount of attention which the volumes have already received; and it is to be expected that they will do a great deal towards introducing in some places, and confirming in others, reasonable criticism with regard to the discussion of a large number of New Testament problems.1 The following quotation from one of the latest editions, and which therefore expresses his most mature views on the subject, will indicate that adverse criticism has not shaken the conviction which he

¹ The Church in the Roman Empire before A.D. 170, 6th ed., Hodder & Stoughton, 1900; St. Paul the Traveller and the Roman Citizen, 6th ed., Hodder & Stoughton, 1902; Was Christ born at Bethlehem? A Study in the Credibility of St. Luke, 1900.

slowly reached some years ago, when a patient investigation of the facts proved to him that the Tübingen theory, in spite of its ingenuity and apparent completeness, could not be maintained. It has to do with the question of the "we" sections, on which so much depends.

"The introduction of the first person at this striking point in the narrative (xvi. 10) must be intentional. There is no general statement like xiv. 22 ('we must through much tribulation enter into the kingdom of God'), though even there the first person has a marked effect. Every one recognises here a distinct assertion that the author was present. Now the paragraph as a whole is carefully studied, and the sudden change from third to first person is a telling element in the total effect: if there is any passage in Acts which can be pressed close, it is this. It is almost universally recognised that the use of the first person in the sequel is intentional, marking that the author remained in Philippi when Paul went on, and that he rejoined the Apostle some years later on his return to Philippi. We must add that the precise point at which the first person form of narrative begins is also intentional; for, if Luke changes here at random from third to first person, it would be absurd to look for purpose in anything he says. The first person, when used in the narrative of xvi., xx., xxi., xxvii., xxviii., marks the companionship of Luke and Paul; and when we carry out this principle of interpretation consistently and minutely, it will prove an instructive guide. This is the nearest approach to personal reference that Luke permits himself; and he makes it subservient to his historical purpose by using it as a criterion of personal witness. Luke, therefore, entered into the drama of the Acts at Troas" (Paul the Traveller, pp. 200, 201, ed. 1902). In a later chapter he expresses his conviction that the "we" sections represent the contents of a Diary kept by Luke himself, supplemented by memory and subsequent research. This Diary and his notes of conversations with S. Paul and others were among the materials which he worked into his plan of the book (p. 384). To stigmatise a volume of this character as the work of a narrow apologist (see Schmiedel in the Theol. Literaturztg., 1897, No. 23) is very cheap criticism, and Dr. Knowling is quite right in deploring that Professor H. Holtzman should allow himself to speak of a portion of Professor Ramsay's work as "humbug" (Theol. Literaturztg., 1899, No. 7). In contrast to such criticism as this it is a pleasure to quote Harnack's estimate of Professor Ramsay's other great work; that, in spite of some misleading details, "it contains the best contributions towards the explanation and vindication of the Acts" (Chronologie der altchrist. Litt. bis Eusebius, p. 250, Leipzig, 1897). What is required is that the history and archæology used by Ramsay to support the accuracy of S. Luke should be shown to be erroneous or irrelevant. Till that is done, and done not merely with regard to this or that detail, but with regard to the argument as a whole, the argument holds the field. How comes it that a writer of two treatises, which deal with a department of history in which the opportunities for slips and misstatements are perhaps unrivalled, viz., the condition of Palestine and the organisation of the Roman Empire in the century which preceded the destruction of Jerusalem, is found so often to be perfectly accurate, and can so very rarely be shown to be even probably in the wrong? If he was contemporary with part of his period, and had ample opportunities of conversing with those who were contemporary with other parts; if he was an eve-witness of some things which he relates, and knew persons who were eye-witnesses of a great deal more; then this extraordinary accuracy is intelligible, and no further explanation is needed, excepting that, as he himself tells us in the Preface to the Gospel, he took pains to be accurate. But a writer of the second century, writing long after the immense changes made by the destruction of Jerusalem, and having no personal experience of Palestine as it was in the time of Christ and of S. Paul, would (no matter what pains he took) constantly have made mistakes, if he had ventured to give the amount of detail which S. Luke gives both in his Gospel and in Acts.

The mention of Dr. Knowling naturally leads on to the mention of a group of English scholars, who are unanimous in maintaining that Luke the physician and the colleague of S.

Paul is the author of the Third Gospel and of Acts, and who have given the reasons for their convictions in writings that have appeared during the last twelve years. Bishop Lightfoot's view was quoted at the beginning of this article. We have his reasons for it drawn out in full in his article on "Acts" in the second edition of Vol. I. of Smith's Dictionary of the Bible (Murray, 1893). Contributors to the latest Dictionary of the Bible, that edited by Dr. Hastings (T. & T. Clark, 1898-1902), marshal the facts in a somewhat different way, but draw the same conclusion, and draw it without hesitation: the Rev. A. C. Headlam in the article on "Acts," and the Rev. Ll. J. M. Bebb in the article on "Luke". Other writers incidentally show that they accept this view as certain; Professor H. Cowan, in his article on "Matthias"; Professor Findlay in that on "Paul the Apostle"; and Dr. Lock in the article on "Timothy". If we turn to commentaries, the result is the same; e.g., that of the Rev. J. Bond on the Gospel according to St. Luke (Macmillan, 1890), and that of the Rev. A. Wright on the same (Macmillan, 1890), or those on Acts by the Rev. F. Rendall (Macmillan, 1897), by the Rev. R. J. Knowling, D.D. (Hodder & Stoughton, 1901), a work of searching carefulness, and by R. B. Rackham (Methuen, 1901). Professor Knowling's work is part of the Expositor's Greek Testament, edited by Dr. Robertson Nicoll, while Mr. Rackham's is one of the Oxford Commentaries, edited by Dr. Lock. To these may be added Footprints of the Apostles as traced by Saint Luke in the Acts, by H. M. Luckock, D.D., Dean of Lichfield (Longmans, 1897). Handbooks on the Synoptic Gospels, or on the Gospel narrative as a whole, reveal similar views; e.g., The Synoptic Problem, by A. J. Jolley (Macmillan, 1893), Manual of the Four Gospels, by the Rev. T. H. Stokoe, D.D. (Oxford Press, 1901). During the same period the veteran scholar Dr. Ellicott has come forward once more to sum up the results of a lifelong study of the New Testament. In The Authenticity of the Gospel of St. Luke (S.P.C.K., 1892) he contends that it is scarcely possible that any one but the beloved physician can have written Acts, and therefore the Third Gospel also. Dr. F. W. Farrar, Dean of Canterbury, is another labourer in the same field, who shows by repeated issues of his commentary on S. Luke ¹ that his convictions respecting the authorship of this Gospel remain unchanged.

But among English workers there is perhaps no one who has done more to supply materials for a solid judgment on these subjects than Sir John Hawkins. The linguistic facts patiently collected and sifted in his Hora Synoptica 2 are of a very telling character, and are likely to influence those whose minds are capable of appreciating such facts and of drawing sound conclusions from them. The facts, as the title of the work indicates, are taken mainly from the first three Gospels, as "contributions to the study of the synoptic problem". But in order to do justice to the Gospel of S. Luke, Acts also is taken into account. In the statistics and observations respecting the Synoptic Gospels there is an important "special consideration of the 'we'-sections of Acts in relation to St. Luke's Gospel". The three theories are stated: (1) That the compiler of Acts used the diary of a companion of S. Paul and clumsily omitted to turn "we" into "they". This view has been sufficiently laughed out of court by Vogel (Characteristik des Lukes nach Sprache und Stil, pp. 12, 13), as Dr. Knowling points out in his commentary (p. 5). (2) Zeller's view that the compiler wished "to identify himself with the older reporter" and "pass for one of Paul's companions," and therefore purposely left the first person plural in order "to recommend his production".3 The view of Dr. Bacon, quoted earlier in this article, is a toning down of that of Zeller. The writer of Acts did not wish to deceive his readers. He left the "we" unchanged, because he shrank from obliterating a very interesting feature in the Diary. As if all diaries did not have "we" in them! (3) That the writer was sometimes with S. Paul, and sometimes not, and that he naturally writes in the first person plural when

¹ Cambridge Greek Testament. Clay & Sons.

² Clarendon Press, 1899.

³ Zeller, The Contents and Origin of the Acts, vol. ii., p. 258. Williams & Norgate, 1876.

narrating events at which he had been present. Sir John Hawkins then gives tables of words, which are (a) peculiar to the "we" sections and the rest of Acts; (b) peculiar to the "we" sections and Luke, with or without the rest of Acts; (c) found in the "we" sections and very commonly either in Luke or in Acts or in both. These, especially the last, make very considerable totals. Of words and phrases that are characteristic of Luke there are as many (110) in the 97 verses which make up the "we" sections as in the 661 verses of Mark. Of the words and phrases characteristic of Matthew there are only 18 instances in the "we" sections. Of the words and phrases characteristic of Mark there are only 8 occurrences in the "we" sections. On the other hand, the number of words and phrases peculiar to the "we" sections is very small, and most of them are such as happen to be wanted there and nowhere else, as in the narrative of the shipwreck. Sir John Hawkins thus sums up: "There is an immense balance of internal and linguistic evidence in favour of the view that the original writer of these sections was the same person as the main author of the Acts and of the third Gospel, and, consequently, that the date of those books lies within the lifetime of a companion of S. Paul" (p. 154). Once more it may be urged that these facts must be faced; and one asks for an hypothesis which will explain (1) the primitive and unswerving tradition as to the authorship of these books; (2) the phenomena of the "we" sections; (3) the medical phraseology and cultivated style such as a physician would be likely to exhibit. The theory of Lucan authorship satisfies, and perfectly satisfies, every one of these conditions. The impossibility of finding a theory that is equally (or even tolerably) satisfactory is no doubt the explanation of what is contended for in this article; that, in the criticism to which the Third Gospel has been subjected during the last twelve or fifteen years, the theory of Lucan authorship still holds its own, and is likely to be triumphant in the end. But the roll of scholars who support it has by no means been exhausted, and it is necessary to mention one or two more names.

In this connexion it would be ungrateful, especially in the present writer, to fail to remember another veteran student of the New Testament, to whom all workers in that field, whether here or on the Continent or in America, have long been under immense obligations—the late Professor F. Godet of Neuchatel. He died in harness two years ago, while his Introduction au Nouveau Testament was passing through the press. Through the great kindness of Dr. Godet the parts of it were sent to the present writer as they came out. Oct. 3, 1900, he sent from his deathbed a sheet of paper with the names of recipient and donor on it, to be fastened into the bound volume; and Oct. 29 he went to his rest. The fourth and last chapter in the parts thus issued deals with the Gospel according to S. Luke. In it the venerable author, at the end of a long discussion, expresses his conviction that "the Third Gospel and the Acts have one and the same author. This author is the physician Luke, fellow-worker of Paul" (p. 653). Nor, on the Continent, is the great Swiss scholar alone in contending for this conclusion. Recent attacks on the Lucan authorship have entirely failed to shake the convictions of the German veteran, Zahn, as readers of his Einleitung know. In this he has the support of Nösgen (Geschichte Jesu Christi, p. 53, München, 1891; Geschichte der Apostolischen Verkundigung, p. 391, 1893) and, to mention only one more German, whose works are now of world-wide reputation, of F. Blass (Acta Apostolorum, pp. 1-3, Göttingen, 1895; Euangelium secundum Lucam, Prafatio, Lipsiæ, 1897). It is perhaps no exaggeration to say that these scholars are as convinced as Lightfoot and Westcott were, and as Dr. Salmon still is, that, on the strictest critical grounds, the primitive tradition respecting the authorship of the Third Gospel and of Acts can and must be maintained.

There is one theory respecting S. Luke's Gospel which really does seem to be dead, and, if it is dead, we may say without regret, requiescat; and that is the view advocated by the author of Supernatural Religion and others, that in Marcion's Gospel, the contents of which are fairly exactly known to us from Tertullian and Epiphanius, we have the genuine

Luke, and that the Canonical Gospel has been largely augmented—to the extent of over 300 verses—by a later hand. The arguments of Hilgenfeld, Volkmar, and Sanday seem to have killed this view. Bishop Lightfoot regarded Dr. Sanday's article in the Fortnightly Review, June, 1875, as "unanswerable" (On Supernatural Religion, p. 186).

With regard to the date of the publication of the Third Gospel there is perhaps a less decided tendency towards one view than with regard to the authorship. Both those who accept the Lucan authorship and those who deny it differ a good deal as to the period in which the book was written. But, on the whole, those who accept take the 33 years from A.D. 57 to 90, while those who deny take the 33 years from A.D. 90 to 123. If there is any tendency towards unanimity, it is certainly in this case not towards the traditional view. In spite of the powerful support of Blass (Philology of the Gospels, pp. 36 ff.), the early date does not seem to be gaining adherents,1 and the large majority of scholars are agreed in placing the time of publication at any rate later than A.D. 70. To place it as late as 95 is not necessarily to deny that Luke the physician wrote it: a companion of S. Paul may easily have lived as late as that. But there is perhaps no one who believes that S. Luke is the author and yet advocates so late a date. What could have induced him to put off writing for so long? And under the fire of Diocletian's persecution could he, or any one, have written in such a spirit of indifference, or even friendliness, towards the Roman government? Again, could he, or any one, have written in 95 or later, and yet have shown no knowledge of the Epistles of S. Paul? Contrast the knowledge of them exhibited in the Epistle of Barnabas, in Clement of Rome, in Ignatius, and in Polycarp. And yet neither in S. Luke nor in Acts is there a single passage which proves that the writer was acquainted with any one of the Pauline Epistles. He neither quotes any of them, nor mentions any of them. Opinion is not unanimous as to whether the writer of Acts did know S. Paul's letters and

¹ Rackham is on the same side for Acts.

make any use of them as sources of information. But it is somewhat strange that writers who think that he did not use them should yet date Acts as of the second century; and to suppose that he did not use S. Paul and did use Josephus is also extraordinary. Yet agreement within narrow limits is not hopeless; and perhaps in another twelve years it will be found that a date between A.D. 78 and 93 is accepted by most critics.

There is less ground for expecting unanimity as to the interval between S. Luke's first and second treatise: there is so very little evidence either way
It may be true, as Harnack suggests, that when Luke finished his Gospel he had no idea of writing anything more: there is nothing in either the Preface or the concluding words to show that he did. It may also be true, that, when he began the second treatise, he had some idea of writing a third, whether or no πρῶτον λόγον as a description of the Gospel is any indication of such intention. But if both these points could be established, we should still know nothing as to the amount of time which elapsed between the conclusion of the Gospel and the commencement of Acts. Nor is the question of much moment. The important question for criticism to decide is whether in these two works we are reading the words of an intimate associate of S. Paul; and towards agreement on that point conclusions (especially among British scholars) seem to be tending. Those who, like Hahn, assign the two books to Silas, or, like Dr. Selwyn, identify Luke with Silas and Tertius, support this view. What Dr. Chase has already given us on the subject (see above) leads us to wish for as early an appearance as may be of his much-needed treatment of Acts in the International Critical Commentary. Meanwhile Dr. Knowling supplies much excellent help, especially for those to whom works written in German are of no service.

At the end of a long article there is not much room for discussing the theory that there were two editions, made by Luke himself, both of his Gospel and of Acts: a theory which was suggested early in the eighteenth century by Jean Leclerc, was treated as quite possible by Bishop Lightfoot,

and is now made famous by the elaborate advocacy of Blass. Blass has won the support of Dr. Salmon and of Nestle; and the theory, which no doubt has features of great attractiveness, seems to be looked upon with more or less favour by various writers, and perhaps on the whole is gaining ground. If the present writer is to express his conviction, it is that this theory will not stand the test of minute and detailed criticism, and will have to be abandoned. It fits a considerable number of striking differences of reading remarkably well. But there is a greater number of less striking variations that it does not fit at all; and there are some which tell quite in the opposite direction. An adequate test would involve a very long and dry investigation; but some useful classifications of readings have been made in Texte und Untersuchungen by Weiss, in Der Codex D in der Apostelgeschichte, which was noticed in the Critical Review, Oct. 1898 (see also Moulton on the Acta Abostolorum of Blass in the Crit. Rev. of Jan. 1898). recently Dr. Kenyon has made some valuable criticisms in his Handbook of Textual Criticism (pp. 291 ff.). The discussion will probably end in increased respect being paid to the δ-text in general; but that the δ-text in Luke represents a later edition of the Gospel made by the Evangelist, and that the δ-text in Acts represent a rough copy of the treatise made by Luke, will probably be found to be a brilliant but untenable conjecture.

The above paper was written before the writer had seen the six St. Margaret Lectures for 1902 on the "Criticism of the New Testament" by six of our leading scholars (Murray, 1902). They are a confirmation of the line taken in this paper: see especially pp. 19, 120, 161, 162, 219, 220.

A. Plummer.

Kirchengeschichte Deutschlands.

- Von Dr. Albert Hauck, Professor in Leipzig. Vierter Teil. Die Hohenstaufenzeit. I. Hälfte. Leipzig: Hinrichs; London: Williams & Norgate, 1902. 8vo, pp. 416. Price 7s. net.
- Die Versagung der kirchlichen Bestattungsfeier, ihre geschichtliche Entwickelung und gegenwärtige Bedeutung.
- Von W. Thümmel, as. o. Professor der Theologie in Jena. Leipzig: Hinrichs; London: Williams & Norgate, 1902. 8vo, pp. viii. + 196. Price 3s. net.
- The Elizabethan Prayer-Book and Ornaments, with an Appendix of Documents.
- By Henry Gee, D.D., F.S.A. London: Macmillan & Co. Cr. 8vo, pp. xxiii. + 288. Price 5s.

THE first chapter of this part of Professor Hauck's History deals with the circumstances of the Church in Germany in the beginning of the twelfth century. The account is detailed and graphic; and one reads that competent and educated preachers were few in number, and that preachers had difficulties, not unknown in modern times, in arresting the attention of hearers. The following words might almost describe the experience of a preacher of the present day: "Bei Honorius z. B. ist die Rücksicht auf die weltlichen Hörer, auf ihre Verhältnisse und ihre Schwächen ganz gewöhnlich. Reiche und Arme, Richter und Ritter, Krämer und Bauern sind in der Kirche versammelt; der Prediger weiss, dass sie zum Teil weite Wegen haben, er muss sich kurz fassen, um sie nicht zu ermüden. . . . In Winter ist es bitter kalt in der Kirche; auch darauf wird Rücksicht genommen. Dass eine Rede, die langweilt, ihren Zweck verfehlt, weiss Honorius wohl; deshalb sucht er die Aufmerksamkeit durch allerlei Zwischenbemerkungen wach zu erhalten, die sich direkt auf die Hörer und ihre Verhältnisse beziehen." The second chapter, "Die Beseitigung des königlichen Einflusses und das päpstliche Regiment in der Kirche," brings the reader to the period when, instead of an emperor Henry IV. furiously opposing a strong-willed Hildebrand, or of a still more powerful Henry V. coercing a Paschal II., there reigned an emperor Lothar II., who was simply the minion of the Pope. A few years brought to an end, by the death of Lothar, the supremacy of Rome over the Church in Germany; and though Conrad III. left but a slight impress on the history of that Church he prepared the way for the great Barbarossa. When Conrad died, as Professor Hauck says, "Ein neuer Akt in dem grossen Spiel von Kaisertum und Papsttum konnte beginnen," Frederick Barbarossa marked a reaction. Henry IV. had been overcome by Hildebrand, Henry V. had suffered by the Concordat of Worms, and Lothar II. had been the servant of Rome. Frederick stood for no mere opposition or enmity to a Pope. He sought to make his empire the Holy Roman empire, a divine institution, free in origin and in rule from the Church. With clear understanding and historical insight Professor Hauck narrates the events of Frederick's reign. His descriptions from time to time are vivid, as may be seen from his words regarding Arnold of Brescia: "Er selbst lebte als ein echter Nachfolger des armen Jesus; man sah ihn in den schlichtesten Gewändern, er war ein Meister im Fasten, mit unvergleichlichem Eifer bohrte er sich in das Studium der heiligen Schrift ein. Er fand in ihr Dasselbe was schon Ariald begeistert hatte: das reine, hehre Bildder Urgemeinde, die Religion und nicht Gold, Frömmigkeit und nicht Herrschaft ihr eigen nannte. Was ihn erfüllte. verkündigte er in seinen Predigten: er sprach mit dem Feuer des geborenen Redners und mit der Heftigkeit des Mannes, der eine verkannte, verleugnete Wahrheit vertritt."

In the fourth chapter an account is given of the new religious orders which marked the religious revival of the twelfth century. The rise of the Mendicants, which belongs to the thirteenth century, is also traced; and the effect of the new orders on the German Church is shown. In describing

Francis the writer says: "Als er begann, von einem der schönen Bergstädtlein Umbriens zum anderen wandernd. Busse und Frieden, das Reich Gottes und die Sündenvergebung zu verkündigen, dachte er nicht einen Orden zu gründen; auch hat er sicher davon nichts gewusst, dass hundert Jahre vorher ein deutscher Kleriker den gleichen Gedanken gehabt hatte wie er, und dass die mangelnde Zustimmung der Kirche sein Unternehmen bald zum Stillstand gebracht hatte. Man mag bezweifeln, ob er selbst davon wusste, dass einige Jahrzehnte früher ein französischer Kaufmann in Lyon das Gleiche wollte, und dass der Widerspruch der Kirche ihn zum Ketzer gemacht hatte." Francis, as his own acts afterwards proved, intended to found no order; and it may be that he was ignorant of the German who had walked in the ways of poverty. But why should he not have known of Waldo? The mother of Francis seems to have been French, and his father constantly travelled into France. Francis, the rich merchant's son, was not brought up in ignorance of the world; and though he nowhere confesses that he was influenced by the practices of the Waldensians, since he would thereby have admitted that there was good in heretics, it does not follow that he knew nothing about them.

This volume of Professor Hauck's History deals with a period of notable men and significant events, and the writer brings to his work learning and judgment.

An essay on the Church's control of burial rites seems at first sight to be a mere excursion into a by-path of history. The subject, however, is of importance in connexion with the Church's power over its members, and in relation to the Papal struggle for supremacy. Gregory the Great related a story of the time when he was abbot of the monastery of St. Andrew. Three pieces of gold were found in the possession of a dying monk, and the abbot in anger at the monk's broken vow of poverty ordered the consolations of religion to be withheld from the man, and his body after death to be cast out, without funeral rites. Gregory relented after the death, and

arranged that the Eucharist should be offered during thirty days for the salvation of the monk, who, as was revealed in a vision, was eventually saved. The story illustrates the power of the Church over its members. Legend helped to intensify this power. In the eleventh century, at a Council held at Limoges, the Bishop of Cahors told how heaven approved of his refusal of burial rites to a despoiler of the Church. friends of the dead knight, to whom these rites were refused, buried his body in consecrated ground without the help of a priest. Next morning, after this irregular burial, the naked body was discovered outside the cemetery, while the wrappings were found in the grave. Five times the burial was repeated, and five times the body was cast out of the grave by the interference of heaven. A legend of this kind, though but a legend, helped to make priestly control a spiritual tyranny. The importance of the subject of this essay may be further seen from the treatment of the body of the wilful and unfortunate Henry IV., who sought by thwarting the stubborn Hildebrand to check the advancing supremacy of the Church over the State.

In the preface Professor Thümmel indicates that his work is an essay in the great subject of excommunication; and, as the title indicates, he describes the historical development of the custom of refusing burial rites, and examines the significance of that custom at the present time. There is, as might be expected from a German professor, an inquiry into pre-Christian experience, and the first section of the first part is named: "Versagung oder Verminderung der Bestattungsfeier bei Griechen, Römern und Hebräern". Dealing with the Jews the writer notes the fact that burial was a duty placed on the nearest relations or associates of the dead, and pointing to Rizpah (2 Sam. xxi. 10) names her "die hebräische Antigone". The last part of the historical inquiry deals with the present day-" das heutige Verfahren in der römish-katholischen, griechisch-orthodoxen und anglikanischen Kirche". The usage of the English Church is explained in connexion with the instruction in the Prayer-book that the office is not to be used "for any that die unbaptized, or excommunicate, or have laid

violent hands upon themselves". Speaking of the Greek Church, Professor Thümmel refers to the threat which has been held out to Count Tolstoi, and draws attention to the public interest in this case, and to the newspaper correspondence respecting it. He wisely says that a Christian and spiritual writer like Tolstoi cannot belong to the dead Russian Church, and that public opinion is wrong in irritating itself on the intolerance of this Church. He adds: "Und es ist schon ein evangelischer Zug, dass die russische Kirche nur mit einer geistlichen Versagung gestraft hat und nicht mit der Knute der Staatsgewalt, wiewohl diese evangelische Geistigkeit nur dem Umstande zu danken sein wird, dass es sich um einen Grafen und um einen Tolstoi handelte".

In the second part of the book the writer seeks to answer such questions as "Ob die Versagung der kirchlichen Bestattungsfeier ein Bestandteil der kirchlichen Ausschliessung ist?" and deals with such subjects as the classes to which funeral rites are denied.

The book is the work of a competent writer who has made an interesting and exhaustive study of his subject, and has contrived to present his results in a concise form.

In the summer of 1901 Dr. Gee delivered three lectures at Oxford, which after revision are now published in this volume. The subject as here discussed is of antiquarian interest, but the treatment of it illustrates the use and the need of the scientific method. Every worker in history discovers that there are literary artists like Macaulay or Froude who make blunders, even apart from their prejudices; and that there are antiquarians, like Sir Walter Scott, with a great reputation and also a wonderful capacity for erring in details. Somehow the men who have discovered documents, men like Strype of the "Annals," have been so generally recognised as authorities that their conclusions have been too often allowed to pass without challenge. Dr. Gee, by the use of the scientific method, which is simply the careful separation of fact from fiction or theory, shows how Strype's account of

the revision of the prayer-book at the beginning of Elizabeth's reign can no longer, in spite of the years during which it has been accepted, be recognised as history.

Strype discovered an undated document, written by Guest, who lived to be Bishop of Rochester, and this document he published in the "Annals". He examined the contents, after a fashion; and concluded not only that it referred to the revision of the prayer-book in 1559, but also that it showed that Guest was the chief reviser, and that in it, the document, there was a justification of the revision. Strype created a reputation for Guest; and in the nineteenth century one of the bishop's descendants wrote his Life, in which he described him as "the principal compiler of the liturgy of the Church of England established at the time of the Reformation". This descendant, Mr. Dugdale, called on seats of learning and ecclesiastical establishments "to search with diligence and avidity the arena of their respective depositories," to "examine their munimental manuscripts," and "should their labours be attended with success, communicate their contents to the world". With a suggestion of humour Dr. Gee quotes these words and, obeying the injunctions, destroys the theory or story that Guest was the chief reviser of the Elizabethan prayer-book. It is impossible to follow here in detail Dr. Gee's examination of Guest's document, which he shows cannot be accepted without the gravest doubt, as referring to the revision in 1559. Guest, to take one detail as an example, wrote, "Though this is the old use of the Church to communicate standing, yet because it is taken of some by itself to receive kneeling, whereas of itself it is lawful, it is left indifferent to every man's choice to follow the one way or the other". Strype, with his theory of Guest as a reviser, said that the posture "was left indifferent in the book by the divines"; and added, "But the parliament, I suppose, made a change here, enjoining the ancient posture of kneeling, as was in the old book". Dr. Gee shows that those "who prepared the prayer-book in 1559 were not likely to raise any discussion on this question. Not one of them is known to have been in favour of standing reception." He adds: "But the

kneeling controversy is a very prominent matter in the year 1552".

Having demonstrated that the "current story of the revision," as Strype's account is styled, is not entitled to be accepted as historical, Dr. Gee proceeds to reconstruct the story from such facts as he counts real. The book, as said, is an illustration of the use and need of the scientific method in history; and is to be commended for its lucidity and thoroughness.

JOHN HERKLESS.

The Supreme Leader. A Study of the Nature and Work of the Holy Spirit. By Francis B. Denio, D.D. Boston: Pilgrim Press. Cr. 8vo, pp. xiv. + 264. Price \$1.25.

WE have by no means too many books on the doctrine of the Holy Spirit. We welcome an addition to the literature of that important subject by Professor Francis B. Denio of Bangor Theological Seminary. His book consists of four studies dealing in succession with the biblical teaching respecting the Spirit of God, what Christians have learned from thought and experience, the work and person of the Holy Spirit, the Holy Spirit and Christian life and experience. The first of these four studies suffers from its compression. It touches the main points, but fails to cover all that belongs to so large and difficult an inquiry. It gives a very meagre account of the doctrine of the Spirit in the intermediate literature of Judaism. In the second study we have the condensed results of a wide extent of reading, covering the development of thought on the subject from the beginnings of the Church and theology on to the nineteenth century. Professor Denio does ample justice to the Reformers and the Puritans. "The Reformers and the Puritans together," he tells us. "extended the boundaries of recognised truth respecting the Holy Spirit so as to comprehend all that has since been taught on the subject." He adds that this "does not mean that there has been no advance since 1700 in the recognition of truth, for what had been taught in secret has since been proclaimed from the housetop, and accepted in the street". There is an interesting chapter on "The Witness of the Spirit," in which the views of Baxter, Owen, John Wesley, and others are briefly stated. The more recent views of the Hegelians, Schleiermacher, and others are also shortly noticed. Then come important statements on the Spirit as God immanent in the world, as the Agent in the Prophetic work of Christ, as a Person in the Deity, etc. The book concludes with an exposition of the need of the Spirit for effective Christian service, the ways in which He makes Christian service effective, the evidence of His presence, and the conditions of His operation in human life. The volume is one that deserves study. It deals with many important questions in a concise, well-informed and suggestive manner. It has much that deserves consideration and that will repay study.

S. D. F. SALMOND.

Evolution and its Bearing on Religions. By A. J. Dadson. With five Plates. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 268. Price 2s. 6d.

Mr. A. J. Dadson's volume is written in the same spirit as his Evolution and Religion, which appeared in 1893. It is indeed that book with considerable changes. The chapters on Evolution have been revised in the light of the increased knowledge of recent years, and the rest has been so far rewritten that the author can claim for the volume now before us that it is "substantially a new book". Mr. Dadson reviews the creeds of the past and declares the effect of the growth of knowledge on them. This he thinks has been in the direction of "disclosing their unsubstantial and erroneous character, though they were matters of the deepest interest to those generations". His position is clearly stated in these terms: "To eliminate superstition and supernaturalism as a creed is one of the aids, perhaps the greatest, to intellectual growth and purity of mind, on which welfare and progress depend. This is the justification for seeking to rationalise religious belief, by subjecting it to the judgment of reason, which is the only reliable guide given to man." After a series of brief chapters in which he discusses ancient evolutionary thought, rudimentary organs, Darwin's law, the soul, the evolution of religious ideas, etc., and traces the story of civilisation from the decadence of Rome on to the Reformation, he comes finally to the subject of modern Christianity. Here he says some sharp things about all the churches, especially the Church of Rome, the history of which is a "sad satire on human intelligence". He brings his review of things so far up to date as to include in it Mr. Handley's book on The Fatal Opulence of Bishops. His conclusion is that "every explanation which man formulates in precise terms of his relation to God will in time die; every god he makes, he will in due course unmake. God is inconceivable." Yet we need not fear that religion will die. Why? Because "Mr. Herbert Spencer's view will live for ever, as long at least as man is a tenant of this planet".

The book is not without its elements of interest, and its glimpses of truth. Its assertions, however, are often farfetched, and it gives us precisely what we should expect from its assumed view-point. Marvellous indeed is Mr. Dadson's faith-in Mr. Herbert Spencer.

Histoire de l'Université de Genève. Par CHARLES BORGEAUD. Professeur aux Facultés de Droit et des Lettres. L'Académie de Calvin, 1559-1798. Avec trente portraits hors texte et de nombreuses reproductions de documents. Ouvrage publié sous les auspices du Sénat universitaire et de la Société académique. Genève: Georg & Co., Libraires de l'univérsité, 1900. 4to, pp. xii. +662.

In his History of the University of Geneva, Professor Borgeaud presents us with a work of sumptuous form, and great and varied interest. The preparation and publication of this splendid volume are due, as is explained in the preface, to the initiative of the Academic Society of Geneva-an association of friends of the University who think that the glorious past of a country imposes duties upon its children. and that its great schools of learning have special claims upon their regard. The work belongs to a class of which we should be glad to have more examples-historical monuments, prepared with scholarly pains, with filial love, and with no grudging of cost-to the honour of great Institutions. It represents much painstaking research, the examination of many valuable documents, and the appreciative use of the

considerable literature of recent as well as of older date bearing more or less directly on the history of learning and academic effort in Geneva.

Professor Borgeaud deals first with the work of Calvin in this department of his varied activity, with the movement for the reform of studies in the sixteenth century and his part in that, with the project of a college, with the Academy of Lausanne and the Leges Academiae Genevensis. A chapter which is full of interest is devoted to the inauguration of the "University and College" of Geneva, 5th June, 1559. Then we have brief sketches of the first teachers, Chevalier, Bérauld, Tagat, etc., and the inaugural publications. This part of the volume closes appropriately with an estimate of the services rendered by Calvin. It concludes thus: "Lorsque Calvin en achevé sa tâche, il avait assuré l'avenir de Genève, pour autant que le génie d'un homme peut fonder en faisant d'elle, tout ensemble, une église, une école et une forteresse. Ce fut la première place de la liberté, dans les temps modernes. Par elle, plus que par ses écrits, celui qui l'avait plantée au cœur de la vieille Europe, fut le père spirituel de Coligny, de Guillaume le Taciturne et d'Olivier Cromwell."

The second division of the book, which has the title Théodore de Bèze, gives accounts of what was done in these early times for Law and Medicine, of the provision of Chairs in Literature, of the erection of the second Chair of Theology, etc. Here we get short but vivid sketches of events like the ravages of the pestilence in 1567-72, and of men like Zanchius, Thomas Cartwright, Andrew Melville, Joseph Scaliger, Antoine de la Faye, Charles Perrot, and others. Then follows an excellent estimate of Beza and his services. The third division of the work has the title of The Reign of Theology. It introduces us to men like Diodati, Théodore Tronchin, Bénédict Turretin, Morus, Chouet, Weguelin, Francois Turretin, Louis Tronchin, etc., and recounts the main particulars of the first rupture between the orthodox theologians and the liberal. The fourth division, which is entitled Le Siècle des Philosophes, is occupied with the story of the entrance of new philosophical ideas, the work of philosophical divines such as Bénédict Pictet and Jean Alphonse Turretin, the struggle with Voltaire, the progress of scientific and historical studies, the savants from Jalabert to de Saussure. It closes with a chapter on the Revolution.

The narrative is full of interest all along. Much useful and learned matter is given in footnotes. There are some valuable appendices in which important documents are given in extenso, together with full lists of professors from Calvin to Antoine Duvillard (1842), and of pretors elected between 1618 and 1798. There are careful reproductions of the signatures of students, etc. The book is further adorned by a multitude of illustrations-portraits of Calvin, Beza, Scaliger, Godefroi, Tronchin, Chouet, Turretin, Pictet, Vernet, and other celebrities, pictures of notable buildings, monuments, etc. Nothing is spared to make the book superb in form, and worthy of its subject externally as well as internally. It reflects great credit on its projectors, its author, and its publishers.

S. D. F. SALMOND.

Das Buch Jeremia erklärt.

Von D. Bernhard Duhm, ord. Professor der Theologie in Basel. (Kurzer Hand-Commentar zum Alten Testament, herausgegeben von Karl Marti; Abteilung xi.). Tübingen und Leipzig: Mohr, 1901. Large 8vo, pp. xxiii. + 391. Price M.6.80.

In this new volume of Marti's Old Testament commentary, Professor Duhm has given us a companion-work to his great commentary on Isaiah. The surprisingly unequal value of the several sections of the book of Jeremiah had led him, following up the researches of Stade, Smend, and others, to investigate the genuineness of much of the book which he had not previously called in question. His general conclusion is that only when the prophet is judged by the poetic sections of the book, which are all that can be reckoned to him, can his work be estimated aright, and he himself as a man, as writer and as prophet be understood—so far, that is, as one can speak of understanding a great personality at all.

The sketch of Jeremiah's life shows us at the outset Duhm's unbounded reverence and esteem for the prophet, and is marked at some points by more regard to the historicity of the biographical sections of the book than appears in some other recent criticism. The narrative of chap. xxxvi. is substantially accepted, and also the tradition (xliii. 5 f.) that Jeremiah was compelled to settle in Egypt after the fall of Jerusalem in 586. On the other hand, Jeremiah is, strictly speaking, no adherent of the Deuteronomic school or party: rather does he stand aloof or even opposed to their theory and programme, and those parts of the book which exhibit affinities with the Deuteronomic spirit are to be transferred to the account of the editors. He may, too, have very well spoken some word, upon which a later writer has based the disclaimer of sacrifice (vii. 21-26), but the passage as we read it is not his. Nor is he the prophet of the New Covenant

(xxxi. 31-34), though personally he stood nearer the conception of what Christian theology means by that than the author of those famous but misunderstood verses.

Chaps. i.-xxv. may once have existed separately, and contain the genuine utterances of Jeremiah, which make up almost the half of this section. No chapter is free from editorial remarks, introducing and connecting the several poems, and in particular, chaps. i., vii., x., xi., xvi., xviii., xix., xxi., xxiii., xxiv., xxv., are in whole or in great part not the work of Jeremiah but of the redactors. Embedded in the late chaps. xxx., xxxi., which had perhaps once stood inside the collection i.-xxv., are three or four further poems from Jeremiah's pen. We have in all about sixty short poems, making up about one-fifth of the whole book of Jeremiah. These poems are written in verse of uniform measure, viz., four lines, each couplet containing alternately three and two accented words. Otherwise expressed, each couplet, when considered as a unit, has five rhythmical beats, the so-called pentameter or Qinah measure. With the exception of the letter to the exiles, preserved in chap. xxix., Duhm does not consider that Jeremiah wrote any prose which has come down to us. His writings fall between 626-586: he probably wrote nothing after the destruction of the nation.

Duhm's admiration for Jeremiah extends in some measure to Baruch, the faithful follower of the great prophet. In chaps. xxvi.-xxix. and xxxii.-xlv. are contained what were doubtless the most important sections of Baruch's account of the prophet's life. This biography has affinities with the historical literature of the Old Testament, and seems to have circulated for centuries as an independent work. Parts of it have been interwoven with the poems of Jeremiah, but neither all at one time, nor according to any fixed plan. The process of transferring them did not take place without a great deal of editorial freedom, rewriting and adapting them to suit their new position. In choosing these sections, the emphasis was laid on the prophet's words, as thus amplified by the editors, long addresses being assigned to

him such as, in fact, he never could have delivered. It would seem that Baruch's narrative was confined to the events of Jehoiakim's reign onwards, of which he had personal knowledge and experience. The excerpts from Baruch make up a section of the book almost but not quite so large as the section due to Jeremiah himself.

The bulk of the sections to be assigned to other writers is much greater than the bulk of the sections due to Jeremiah and his biographer together. These scribes aimed at furnishing the Jewish community with a text-book of religious teaching and edification; most of the additions, therefore, are of a sermon-like character, occasionally poetic and rhetorical, and filled with the usual stereotyped formulas, which introduce or close the words of Jahve to the prophets. The ideas and needs of their own times have more interest for them than close adherence to the historical situation of Jeremiah. Another class of these additions consists of Midrashic stories about Jeremiah (cf. chap. xiii. 1-14) which remind one of the legends of the prophets, examples of which are met with elsewhere (I Kings xiii., Jonah). Glaring descriptions of the sins of the pre-exilic Israelites, which their pious descendants are never weary of confessing, forming as they do the explanation of the present fortunes of the people, and serving as warning against the repetition of similar offences, make up a good part of the homiletic additions to the book; whilst other sections open up consolatory views for Israel (xxx., xxxi.) or at least give the counterpart to Israel's suffering in pictures of the destruction of their heathen foes (xlvi.li.). Of these writers in general Duhm has a very poor opinion. Any value they have is as a reflection of the time when they lived and wrote, but the Jeremiah they present is not the prophet as we know him from his own and Baruch's writings. He is only the embodiment of the ideas of what, in the view of the later Judaism, a prophet must have been. Such writers have no interest in history, but only in theology, and (what is of less importance) their theology is not even good. They are little better, in fact, than many modern preachers who, having lost all touch with reality, seek only to produce an effect by exaggeration. They probably belonged to the lower classes (p. xix., where 19, 21 f. should be 17, 21 f.) who had no proper conception of how the upper classes lived. It is they, of course, who are to be credited with those dreadful maledictions on Jeremiah's opponents. To them it is due that from a literary point of view the book of Jeremiah stands much below the other prophetical writings, including even Daniel and Jonah. They borrow from the older writers, but often with little intelligence. Their chief sources are Deuteronomy, Ezekiel, Deutero-Isaiah, Trito-Isaiah. A close connexion exists between them and the late insertions in Isaiah and the minor prophets. The latest additions are the Messianic passages (xxiii. 5-8; xxxiii. 14-18) and the oracles against the heathen, some verses being even later than the translation of the book into Greek. They are either inserted as supplements to earlier interpolations which had already found a place in chaps, i.-xxv., or are made into collections (xxx., xxxi., xlvi.-li.) which cannot have come into existence before the end of the second century B.C. The text of the book can hardly, in fact, be said to have ever existed in a complete or fixed form. The Greek translators seem to have aimed at abbreviation and simplification of the text before them; the Massoretic text, on the other hand, seems to have come to us from manuscripts containing, especially in the second half of the book, unnecessary repetitions and amplifications, often at the cost of clearness. These manuscripts exhibit, too, some final traces of editorial activity. The present Hebrew order of the oracles against the heathen may, perhaps, be reckoned such. But to dispute which is its original and proper place would only have a meaning if the book in other respects were arranged on any rational principle.

It is obvious that we are here confronted with the same kind of problems that Duhm has presented us with in his earlier commentaries. There are the old difficulties regarding the very late dates to which so much of the book is assigned, and to which we used to think the history of the canon itself placed insuperable barriers. While we know so little

about the canon that the possibility of Duhm's chronology must be granted, it is equally possible to doubt whether it be really necessary to relegate all Messianic and eschatological passages in the prophets to the second century. And one distrusts the endless partition of small sections of Old Testament books and their relegation to different authors and redactors, widely separated from one another in time, though it cannot be concealed that the unconnected and fragmentary condition of the text of the Hebrew writers often defies bond fide explanation on any other lines. Further, there are signs that a regard for rhythm and strophical arrangement-if, out of regard to accuracy, we may not say "metre"-is likely soon to play a much greater part in the criticism of the text of the Old Testament than was considered allowable not so many years ago. The feeling is growing that at least "there may be something in it". Of course there is room in all this for much that is subjective and arbitrary, and Duhm certainly takes advantage of his liberty. Some features in his conception of the prophet and his work which would need to be very carefully considered before being accepted have been incidentally referred to. In his arrangement of the poems Duhm has reached a high degree of success: what will strike one as more doubtful is the view that if a passage is in plain prose, or in verse not of the "Qinah" measure, it is, ipso facto, not Jeremiah's. However that may be, Old Testament students will find every page of this book instructive for criticism and exposition of the text and the history of religion. We feel that we are in the hands of one who can interpret Isaiah and Jeremiah, because he understands what religion is. Doubtless the English reader who had not read Professor N. Schmidt's article on the Book of Jeremiah in the New World for 1900, and who still attaches any value to Jewish tradition, is sure to be frequently shocked. At least he will not deny that many things in Duhm would have pleased him better if they had been expressed with infinitely less of the vituperation which is poured out upon the dulness and ignorance of ancient editors and scribes

Zur Undogmatischen Glaubenslehre.

Vorträge und Abhandlungen von Otto Dreyer. Berlin: C. A. Schwetschke und Sohn, 1901. Pp. v.+156. Price 2s.

OTTO DREYER died in 1900, and papers published by him in his lifetime in different periodicals are here collected and issued under a title that expresses the central thought around which they may be grouped. The subjects are: "The Distinctive Mark by which Religious Truth is known," "Religious Language and the Importance of an Understanding of it for Ecclesiastical Unity," "The Confessional Question," "The Faith-Doctrine of Undogmatic Christianity," "The Dogma of the Person of Christ and its Religious Significance," "In what way is Instruction in Christianity to be given so as to awaken a Living Faith in the Church of the present day?"

The author belonged to the liberal party in the Lutheran Church, and fourteen years ago published a book on "Undogmatic Christianity," which made a great stir and has since passed through four editions. These papers are a defence and elucidation of the views there advocated, and will be read with deep interest by those who were impressed by that brilliant essay.

Dreyer was convinced that the hope for religion in the future lay in the general recognition by the Church of the distinction between faith and dogma, between religious truth and its formulated expression in theological dogma. "Dogmas are a product of the reflection of different ages of the Church upon the religious content of Christianity, and are reached by the scientific methods of each age. They contain the eternal truth of faith, but a dogma can never be a perfect expression of eternal truth because it partakes of the fluctuating and defective world of conceptions. Not a single dogma is divinely revealed: they are all the result of human reflection

upon the revelation of God. Faith is eternal; dogma is temporal. Faith is for all; dogma is not for all. Faith is Divine; dogma is human. Faith saves; dogma does not

save" (p. 47).

The "undogmatic Christianity" of which Otto Dreyer is the exponent is not a vague nebulous system, having but one article of belief, viz., that Christianity is a religion of love. It has its doctrines, such as these: the Fatherhood of God, the Divine forgiveness of sin, the Sonship of Jesus, etc. But there is a wide difference between these doctrines of faith and theological dogmas; and while theology should be left free with such intellectual conceptions as are at its command to construct its system out of the material furnished by the truths of faith, the latter alone, Dreyer holds, should be binding on the Church.

One of the most interesting of these essays is that in which Dreyer defines his own position on the general subject in relation to that of Kaftan. Some years ago the Berlin professor published a pamphlet in which he pled for a new dogma that would express the truth of the Christian religion in terms suited to modern requirements. Dreyer and Kaftan are agreed in their contention that the old dogmas, resting on a metaphysic from which modern thought has moved away, are obsolete. But while the latter advocates a fresh reconstruction of dogma, the former, understanding by dogma a formulated statement that is supposed to be an adequate expression of religious truth and therefore equally authoritative with the latter, is opposed to any such reconstructed dogma being imposed on the Church. Any such statement must in the nature of things be provisional and temporary, and, however it might meet the wants of the present, would fail to command the faith of coming generations. The day is past for enforcing new symbolic formulas on the Church. Let theology busy itself with the reconstruction of doctrine. But the Christianity of which the Church is the witness rests on the truths of faith that change not with men's thoughts.

In his essay on the Person of Christ the author illustrates the distinction which he enforces, pointing out that the

diversity of view that prevailed in the Early Church and that issued in the authoritative statements of the creeds arose from the fact that the union between God and man was conceived as a metaphysical one. The insoluble contradictions of the Church doctrine disappear as soon as we succeed in showing that the conception of the essential union between God and man is a religious conception. The dogma has been elaborated from "material in which the religious truth has not reached clear expression" (p. 132).

These essays are charmingly written and the spirit they breathe is admirable. The author's anticipation of a day when the Church will distinguish between theology and religion may seem to some the dream of an idealist. All the same, there cannot be a doubt that the interest of Christianity and the unity of the Church are largely concerned in the recognition of the distinction that is advocated with such force and eloquence in these pages.

DAVID SOMERVILLE.

The World's Epoch Makers: Plato.

By David G. Ritchie, M.A., LL.D. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. 225. Price 3s.

Johannine Problems and Modern Needs.

By H. T. Purchas, M.A. London: Macmillan & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. 126. Price 3s. net.

The Formation of Christian Character: A Contribution to Individual Christian Ethics.

By W. S. Bruce, D.D. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. xvi. + 369. Price 5s.

PROFESSOR RITCHIE'S Plato is a notable addition to Mr. Oliphant Smeaton's series of "The World's Epoch Makers". It is written for those "who are willing to read a good deal of Plato himself". Yet it is most readable and intelligible even for such readers as have no independent knowledge of the subject. Greek words are used sparingly in the text, and never without interpretation. Much valuable material has therefore been embodied in the form of notes. Professor Ritchie threads his way through the difficult questions raised by his subject with admirable prudence. Proof of this is abundant throughout the book, but reference may be specially made to the most interesting concluding chapter on "Platonism after Plato," in which it is impossible altogether to avoid referring to such difficult and controversial matters as the influence of Neo-Platonism on the development of Christian thought. He shows very clearly how, "through St. Augustine, but still more through the works ascribed to Dionysius the Areopagite, Neo-Platonism produced a direct and continuous influence on the mystical tendencies of Christian thought in the Middle Ages" (p. 188).

Further developments of Neo-Platonism into "a combination of mysticism and magic" owing to its contact with Oriental influences are traced in a most interesting manner; and the volume closes with a sketch of the Cambridge Platonists, of whom Professor Ritchie says that "this Platonism which blossomed in sheltered places of learning amid the fierce theological controversies of the seventeenth century was entirely Neo-Platonic in character, sometimes rising to the level of Plotinus or Origen, sometimes sinking to the depths of Iamblichus and his followers, but seldom approaching the purer philosophical atmosphere of Plato himself" (p. 194).

One of the most interesting chapters is that in which the author sketches "Plato and his contemporaries," and deals at length and with discrimination on the attitude of Plato to the Sophists, showing that Plato opposed them, not as a conservative rising against new light, but because in his judgment the Sophist "is satisfied with very perfunctory solutions of the questions" in connexion with which he upsets old beliefs and customs. The Sophist "is the generalised representative of sham thinking, of shallow popular philosophy, of uncriticised commonplace," though Plato also seems to have held that "for this 'crude rationalism' there is a place as a necessary step in the preparation for grasping truth" (p. 69).

The other chapters deal with Plato's writings and furnish a lucid exposition and commentary for the *Parmenides*, the *Timæus*, the *Republic* and the *Laws*.

There are two fine critical chapters on Plato's Theory of Knowledge and The Soul, in which the author shows his philosophic capacity. In the latter, in which he summarises Plato's views as to a future life, and the various arguments by which it may be demonstrated, Professor Ritchie says: "If we were to translate Plato's opinion into terms of modern natural theology, we might perhaps put it, that he does not hold that the soul is in itself indestructible, but that it may accord with the plan of Divine goodness, that there should be a plurality of souls continuing in existence. Even Plato's visions of another world do not necessarily imply any survival

of continuous personal consciousness: all the souls, before entering on a new period of earthly life, have to drink more or less of the waters of forgetfulness. Plato's myths admit of being interpreted, in their ethical aspect, as simply a recognition that the deeds which men do now, affect the lives and destinies of those that shall be born hereafter " (p. 149).

This little volume is an ingenious and not by any means unsuccessful attempt to show that the contemporary needs which the Fourth Gospel was written to serve are conspicuously modern, and that the Gospel has therefore a distinct message for our day. The needs of the age in which it arose were, according to this writer, a more spiritual and less official idea of the Christian ministry: a conception of the Eucharist which would dissociate it from the Jewish Passover; the redemption of the Christian apostolate from the love of money: the clearing up of the mutual relations of Peter and John; a true conception of the apostle based on the thought of his being one who is "sent"; and a more spiritual belief in Jesus as the Son of God. His general contention is that the modern study of the Fourth Gospel has resulted in showing how completely it was designed to meet those needs; and inasmuch as the needs of the first century are in these respects so modern, how timely is its contribution to modern Christianity. It may be felt that the arguments of the writer err by over-ingenuity. They are certainly very interesting, and they contain such implied rebuke to certain modern types of religion as is much wanted, and loses nothing by being grounded on the authority of St. John. The instances he uses tend certainly "to prove that the immediate effect of the Go'spel was not to abrogate outward forms, but rather to spiritualise and Christianise them. And the effect of its renewed study in our own day need not be in any degree more violent or revolutionary" (p. 117). It should be said that the writer accepts the Johannine authorship, but his arguments and conclusions are not affected materially by the problem of authorship.

The aim of the writer of this volume is, he says, "definite and practical. We wish to describe the genesis and growth of Christian character." The subject is discussed in a popular style, and the writer steers his way successfully between those who, on the one hand, emphasise the Gospel without regarding its ethical content, and those who, on the other, try to separate ethical teaching from its Christian roots. It is a useful protest against "naturalism in ethics". He reviews the subject historically, showing how long the Protestant Church, in a spirit of reaction, avoided the study of Christian ethics; and how, nowadays, it falls in naturally with the popular cultivation of the ethical side of the Christian life. Modern contributions to the subject are acknowledged, beginning with Harless and coming to Kilpatrick, Munger and Davidson. Scriptural guidance is furnished in the Wisdom Literature of the Old Testament, and in the ethical teaching of Jesus and St. James. Modern philosophical objections are dealt with, and then the author gets under way, defining what character is-how it is affected by sin-its genesis in the one perfect type—the work of the Holy Spirit in its renewal: and so on.

Specific subjects like Temperance and the Temperaments, Self-Preservation, Christian Self-Culture, the Mind, Emotions, Conscience, Will, Habit, are all sensibly dealt with: and the volume closes with a chapter on The Spiritual Power, or Moral Dynamic, full of force and fine feeling for the secret of the Gospel of Christ. The book may be commended to all students of Christianity, on its ethical side, as a valuable contribution, which would serve as an excellent text-book. It covers more fully the same ground as is sketched in Kilpatrick's Christian Character and Conduct.

DAVID PURVES.

I. Human Nature: A Revelation of the Divine.

- A Sequel to "Studies in the Character of Christ". By Charles Henry Robinson, M.A., Canon Missioner of Ripon. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1902. Pp. x. + 364. Price 6s. net.
- Christ the Indweller: An Attempt to trace the Practical Bearing of the Doctrine of the Inward Christ on Common Life.
- By John Thomas Jacob, Vicar of Tor, Torquay. London: Macmillan & Co., 1902. Pp. 257. Price 5s.
- Steps to Unity: A Scientific Philosophy, the Harbinger of a Scientific Theology.
- London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co., 1901. Pp. xxxiii. + 238.

 Price 7s. 6d.
- Hebrew Ideals from the Story of the Patriarchs: A Study of Old Testament Faith and Life.
- Handbooks for Bible Classes and Private Students. By Rev. J. Strachan, M.A., St. Fergus. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1902. Pp. 201. Price 2s.
- vill welcome this sequel. The former book was warmly received both by the press and the reading public, and this latest production will be recognised as equally acceptable. Mr. Robinson has found the right method of approaching Revelation, and this method he uses with ease and with success. Starting from Tennyson's aphorism—"The spiritual Character of Christ is more wonderful than the greatest miracle," he has developed from "The Portrait of Jesus" a

fresh and telling apologetic. To find in His Unique Personality—for Jesus was not simply another man—the best proof of the Divine origin of Christianity is Mr. Robinson's way of restating the Defence of the Faith. It was along this line, by an induction from observation, that the disciples gained their faith in the Master, and the book before us shows how, from the wider experience of Christ at work in the world and in the heart, men can still follow on "to know the Lord":

In the second part of the book Mr. Robinson deals with the problem of the Old Testament. Here also he relies on the Internal Evidence. There is a concise and scholarly chapter on the Results of Criticism, and accepting these, the author proceeds to differentiate the essential message of the Old Testament from contemporary religions and their literature. With admirable insight the line of cleavage is struck, in the Character of Jehovah. This and the chapters on the Unity of God, the Divine Image in Human Nature and a Continuous Purpose in History, work out a freshly put and helpful defence of the Revelation of the Hebrew Scriptures. The last section of the book is devoted to studies in worship—an application in practical and devotional sermons of the results of the argument.

It remains to be said that the book has all the qualities of a good style. It never lags. It is never dull. It is well indexed, and so makes available its store of unhackneyed and impressive illustration.

It covers a wide range of topics—work, prayer, ambition, patience, etc. The chapters on "Commonplace Surroundings" and "Influence" are particularly suggestive, and the

^{2.} This is a tender and beautiful book on the Culture of the Common Life. Taking St. Paul's prayer, "that Christ may dwell in your hearts by faith," as motto, the author lifts up the Real into the light of the Ideal. Such a book might have been misty and too heroic, or it might have been hard. It is neither, but touches the drab and grey of ordinary experience with sympathetic common-sense. The treatment is sacramental without being sacramentarian.

final chapter "The End Crowns All" is a beautiful picture of the Consecrated Life. The illustrations from literature and art are chosen and applied with great felicity.

3. In a brief preface the anonymous author states that the book has been published with a twofold view, to show (1) that the old Scottish Philosophy of Common Sense can be satisfactorily established on Scientific Principles, (2) and chiefly that the doctrines of Holy Scripture, duly interpreted, can be made to rest on and be consistent with the self-same principles.

After an introduction dealing with the Psychology of the subject, the main theological doctrines of Sin, Righteousness, Human Freedom, Election and Predestination, and the Lord's Supper, are exhaustively discussed. If one could agree with the premise, a due interpretation of Scripture, the book would be more convincing than it is, but to instance only two topics, "Immortality" and "The Basis of Sin," one gravely doubts if justice has been done to the contents of Scripture. "Men may construe things after their fashion": and here the crux of the book lies.

The volume is professedly a path-finder, and that too in a region where pitfalls are numerous. That the author has avoided all of these cannot be said, but he has written with ability and originality a book that will be found interesting and *provocative* to those who have tastes for that "dim and perilous" borderland between Philosophy and Theology.

The book deals with the story of Abraham and Isaac, as a revelation of Old Testament faith and life. Its method—ad-

^{4.} After Analysis comes Synthesis. We have been discussing the composition of Genesis, but here is the book itself with its message. Mr. Strachan is no enemy to scholarship. He is one of the most competent Hebrew students of his day. But he rightly feels that the time has come to take the Old Testament "from the exhausted air-bell of the critic," that it may prove its inspiration, by *inspiring*.

mirably adapted for teaching-is to group round the central point of each incident a series of paragraphs illustrative of the virtues enjoined. In this way he shows us the kind of life the patriarchs lived, its laughter and its tears, its warfare and the peace at the heart of it. For the things that make up the common lot of men everywhere had their counterpart in these pilgrims of the unseen, and Mr. Strachan keeps us close to life.

The book is one of a series for Bible classes, and is exactly the thing we wanted. It is one of the freshest and most illuminative books on Genesis we have seen. As a mirror of manners and ideals to make life worthy it is altogether unique. To bring a Bible class into contact with the Old Testament through the sympathetic insight of this book would be a rare boon to teacher and to taught. The guide is competent; he understands what young men are thinking, and he knows how to reinforce the teaching of Genesis with a perfect wealth of quotation from the wisdom of the centuries. But better than all, Christ is in the book, and the evangelical love for Christ. As a great mountain dominating a landscape, and visible from every point, Christ is always in sight, and His shadow falls across every page. It is meet that it should be so, for "Abraham rejoiced to see His day. and he saw it and was glad". The book is written in delightful English, piquant and crisp, and the surprises of its style make it easy reading. We hope that Part II. will be speedily forthcoming. It will be welcome. Mr. Strachan quotes Luther, "Nihil pulchrius Genesi, nihil utilius," and after him we believe it.

W. M. GRANT.

Personal Idealism: Philosophical Essays.

By Eight Members of the University of Oxford. Edited by Henry Sturt. London: Macmillan & Co., 1902. Pp. viii. +393. Price 10s. net.

WE are becoming accustomed to volumes of Oxford essays, and so long as they keep the high level attained by those issued recently, we cannot have too many of them. The present work is meant to develop and defend the principle of personality as the supreme instrument of interpretation in various fields of philosophy. The writers are at one in their speculative detestation of Naturalism, by which is meant that philosophical tendency, too often illegitimately associated with the name of science, which regards the individual as the transitory resultant of physical processes; "the real strength of naturalism," we are told in one place, "depends not on its logic, but on the success of its appeal to the imagination of the unimaginative". They are also convinced opponents of Absolutism, which may be taken as represented most effectively by Mr. Bradley. These two schools are in reality much akin-"when every one is somebody, then no one's anybody," as the poet has observed and this gives a unity of aim to the writers' polemic. More particularly, Naturalism has to be fought because it ultimately implies fatalism. Absolutism, as Mr. Sturt remarks in his interesting preface, is unsatisfactory "first, in its way of criticising human experience not from the standpoint of human experience, but from the visionary and impracticable standpoint of an absolute experience; and, secondly, in its refusal to recognise adequately the volitional side of human nature". The philosophical motive of these essays is sufficiently clear from this quotation.

We find another feature common to the work of the various authors, which many will agree with the editor in

thinking the most valuable characteristic of their method, viz., the frequency of their appeal to experience. The truth for which empiricism stands has been very late in coming to its rights, but these rights it is impossible to contest any longer. On this Mr. Sturt has an admirable observation. After remarking that "the current antithesis between a spiritual philosophy and empiricism is thoroughly mischievous," he goes on to say: "Empirical Idealism is still something of a paradox; I should like to see it regarded as a truism". These words indicate, as it seems to us, the path of true life and promise for philosophers at the present juncture. After all, the actual is logically superior even to the necessary. Still, one question which we should have liked to see discussed more directly is-What are the qualities of that experience to which appeal is to be made as characteristic and normative? Avenarius would answer this in one way, Mr. Sturt and his colleagues in quite another; and in this work the criterion to which "Empirical Idealism" is to resort is nowhere clearly elucidated.

"Personality" may easily become a parrot-cry in philosophy, but most readers will feel that in the hands of these writers it is made an instrument of genuine explanation, not only in the more familiar problems of knowledge and morals but in the remoter fields of cosmic evolution and the theory of art. The principle adopted is that self-conscious life, as known to man, is the highest category available. Personality is not only the strictest and most concrete unity within our ken; it is the source and model of that principle of unity without which neither science nor philosophy could exist. It is amazing to note how many excellent people, with the best intentions in the world, regard themselves as having finally interpreted facts of human thought and feeling when they have reduced them to sub-personal terms. To realise the preposterousness of any such method they have only to read this book. Here it is recognised, with a clearness which leaves nothing to be desired, that our own conscious mind is the only key we possess to unlock the secrets of being, and that if this key fails, we have no other. Professor James

has recently said that "so long as we deal with the cosmic and the general, we deal only with the symbols of reality, but as soon as we deal with private and personal phenomena as such, we deal with realities in the completest sense of the term"; and his words strike a note which sounds again and again in these pages. It is easy to perceive a near kinship between this attitude of mind and the idealism which for the past thirty years we have been wont to associate with Oxford. But the volume does a great deal more than mark time. It steps in advance of the past. It repeats no man's formulas. In particular it welcomes the results of modern psychology, and faces in no timid and apologetic fashion but in a free and attractively sanguine spirit the widening and enriching of the idealistic system they demand. The thinking is everywhere close to actual life and thought. Facts of every kind are sacred, but the greatest and deepest fact of all is personality.

Another noteworthy characteristic of these writers is their adhesion to what is called voluntarism, i.e., the theory which places the central function of mental life in volitional striving and selective attention. Personality can most truly be described as a willing or originating consciousness. The value of this for ethics is manifest, and in some sort for epistemology as well; for such a view of the essential nature of the self is not likely to be weak in teleology. Of course it has its dangers, of which the authors of this volume are, no doubt, quite well aware. Voluntarism is one of these philosophical views which may turn again and rend you. We think that in Mr. Schiller's essay, for example, it is stated somewhat recklessly. It is one thing to say that belief is the expression of a Self which is far more than intellect; it is quite another to say that it is more closely related to action, and to feeling which is incipient action, than to knowledge. From such a soil a vicious obscurantism may easily spring.

The first essay 1 is by Mr. G. F. Stout, who takes "Error" for his subject. His work serves to remind us how there are a multitude of logical questions upon which the ordinary

¹ Each essay is prefaced by a valuable synopsis.

extbooks throw very little light, but which as discussed by a master are in the highest degree rewarding. Mr. Stout, aking his text from Plato's Theaetetus, starts from the point that in error what is unreal seems to be thought of in the same way as the real is thought of in true knowledge. The possibility of this is a puzzle. As a preliminary to solving it, he considers two modes of thought other than those to which the epithets 'true' and 'false' could apply, viz., indeterminate or problematic thinking, and thinking of what is a mere appearance without asserting that it possesses reality. In discussing these modes Mr. Stout speaks with emphasis regarding the independent reality of the object of cognition, not, of course, in the ontological sense, but in the sense of having a determinate nature of its own to which thought must conform. The conclusion arrived at is that error happens when the mere appearance of anything is confused with its reality. "For error to exist the mind must work in such a way as to defeat its own purpose. Its interest must lie in conforming its thought to the predetermined constitution of some real object. And yet in the very attempt to do so it must qualify its object by features which are merely due to psychological conditions." We have some very illuminating pages on errors of confusion and errors of ignorance. Then follow some corollaries which may be deduced from the main conclusion adopted. Perhaps the most interesting of these sections is the last of all, containing Mr. Stout's strictures upon the position defended by Mr. Bradley, "that all propositions, except perhaps certain assertions concerning the Absolute as such, must be more or less erroneous," because in the very act of asserting we abstract from the conditions. As Mr. Stout maintains, surely with reason, if we assert that two and two are four, all the relevant data are ipso facto present, and doubts are meaningless. Might the same illustration not be employed to suggest to Mr. Stout that he attributes an unreal importance to the principle which he formulates (p. 10) in the words "one cannot be right or wrong without some interest or purpose "? What purpose can affect the rightness or wrongness of the

statement that two and two make four? None, unless you adduce the purpose to count, and to count truly. To make truth and error relative to this, however, besides being superfluous, seems to us a psychological rather than a logical criticism.

We could wish Mr. Stout's essay very much longer, for in philosophical quality it must rank as the finest in the whole volume. It is extremely short, but its importance is in inverse proportion to its bulk. There is a freshness and penetration in its thought, and an incisive brevity in its expression, which leave the reader desirous of more. It closes with an appetising footnote, promising a fuller treatment of the writer's grounds of divergence from Mr. Bradley.

The next essay, the longest in the book, is by Mr. F. C. S. Schiller, and bears the title "Axioms as Postulates". We have found Mr. Schiller a very lively philosopher, intent on beguiling the way with a stream of facetious observations, but his methods are really out of place in the quiet and dignified company in which he finds himself. Were much of the unnecessary and insipid humour to be ruthlessly excised his essay would be reduced to limits more consonant with its speculative importance. We regret that his unfortunate mannerisms may dispose impatient readers to neglect an argument of a very acute and interesting kind.

Mr. Schiller's thesis is that the fundamental principles of knowledge begin their career as demands which we make on our experience. To begin with they must be classed as mere postulates, which are being perpetually sifted by the very process of cognition. Whether they shall be promoted to the rank of axioms or abandoned depends on the way they work. The living progress of knowledge thus becomes, throughout, a revelation and explication of the principles with which we start; and it is easy to see that any theory which maintains so living a relationship between the origin and the history of the categories has a great deal in its favour. Mr. Schiller is next led to give a polemical account of empiricism and apriorism, too unsympathetic, perhaps, to be quite fair. The criticism of a priori logic is carried out at great length, and

contains a vigorous review of the Kantian system. Here the critic presses many of his points with unsparing persistency, contending, e.g., that there is an inveterate ambiguity in Kantianism on the question whether it is logically or psychologically that the principles necessary to knowledge are to be reckoned a priori. Both empiricism and apriorism are finally condemned as being radically infected with intellectualism, and thus rendered incapable of appreciating the essential unity and activity of the personal organism. We must correct this by recognising the thoroughly voluntarist and postulatory character of mental life. "Thought must be conceived as an outgrowth of action, knowledge of life, intelligence of will."

In the latter part of his essay Mr. Schiller proceeds to test the truth of his theory by examining various principles which have been universally held as logically axiomatic. We are told, for example (p. 102), that "the affirmation of identity, without which there is neither thought nor judgment, is essentially an act of postulation which presupposes as its psychological conditio sine qua non the feeling of the self-identity and 'unity' of consciousness". This implies that the principle of identity is already in the mind as a more or less explicit element in the feeling of self, and the task would still seem to be left Mr. Schiller of proving that utility will explain this, its original form. But if we waive this point, and allow Mr. Schiller to give his own account of the postulates of Contradiction, Excluded Middle, Causation, etc., the living attractiveness of the theory grows upon the mind. Especially would we direct attention to the admirable treatment, towards the close, of the problem of teleology.

As we have already said, we think that Mr. Schiller, as a voluntarist, drives the nail in so hard as almost to split the wood. Mr. Stout had justly underlined the truth of the independent reality of the object known, but Mr. Schiller would deny "that there is an objective world given independently of us, and constraining us to recognise it". Unquestionably he is right in insisting on the work of the mind in organising experience, but conceiving that mind as he does

mainly in terms of will, the truth of ideas becomes for him purely relative to the use that is made of them. Now, no doubt knowledge is not mechanically imposed upon the subject by the world, but is rather something hammered out by dint of experience. Yet to exaggerate the activity of the mind, and ignore the cue given by the object, is the most self-defeating of theories. We desire to know in order to survive; true, but unless our knowledge is objectively valid, we shall not survive. We question, therefore, if the whole truth about the principles of knowledge has been told when they have been dubbed postulates. A postulate is too much something we should do without if we could. And when the postulates as construed by Mr. Schiller come to be viewed together, they seem casual, incomplete, unsystematised. No bond of connexion appears to unite them save their formal relation to the mind. Mr. Schiller has made a remarkable contribution to the voluntarist theory of knowledge, but it bears on its face the traces of that method of hyperbole which frequently tempts a man because it is so useful for didactic purposes.

Mr. R. R. Marrett writes a very fine essay on "Origin and Validity in Ethics," full of just and enlightening ideas. In some respects it runs on lines parallel to Mr. Schiller's work, but seems to preserve a truer sanity of judgment. "If Ethics splits into fragments," he declares, "it will split on the question of Origin versus Validity. Or, on the other hand, if Ethics is to maintain its integrity as Ethics, Origin and Validity must be reconciled, that is, room must be found for both principles of explanation to operate freely within a single, well-marked, centrally-governed, self-supporting province of thought." Origin is more a matter of thought, validity of feeling. In order to settle accounts between these two Mr. Marrett places a treble limitation on the scope of Ethics. "Let us remind ourselves," he says, "(a) that life is not all conscious life; (b) that conscious life is not all morality; and (c) that morality as a product is but partially due to moral theory, whether organised as science or as art." Thereupon he institutes a searching examination of the view which finds

the worth of a moral principle in its history, and while conceding that domestic and national virtues appear on the whole to be tolerably well accounted for by saying that they serve the natural end of race-preservation, argues that personal virtues seem rather to seek a 'spiritual' end, as do even more obviously such virtues as holiness, pure unselfishness, and the love of the ideal-qualities of character which he styles transcendental. On rational utilitarianism he passes the severely just criticism that "its appeal was never to veritable history, but to something conceived to lie at the back of history, namely the 'is really' of an a priori metaphysical naturalism". There are many things in morality which it is quite impossible to explain by the unconscious utilitarianism of nature. On the other hand, in moral intuition there is to be found "an ultimate authoritativeness" which is not external to the moral subject, and can be interpreted as the supreme and organising principle of a normative Ethics which both lavs down precepts and explains moral history. And yet Origin stands for something. It is the critical factor in the synthesis. The Ethics proper to man is an intuitionism "tempered by critical reflection".

Mr. Marrett's work contains a great deal of admirable moral psychology, very unobtrusively woven into the general texture of his argument. Some passages seem to have been written with Mr. Taylor's "Problem of Conduct" in view, and will serve as a wholesome corrective to the questionable novelties in moral theory with which that brilliant work abounds. The last section of this essay presents an eminently satisfactory example of the "Empirical Idealism" which Mr. Sturt desiderates, and the need of which has been felt nowhere more keenly than in scientific ethics.

We could wish that we had space to give some adequate impression of Dr. Rashdall's striking essay on "Personality, Human and Divine". Like all Dr. Rashdall's work it is the production of a masculine and penetrating mind. He has come to definite and reasoned conclusions about the subject on which he discourses, and possesses to a very unusual degree the gift of giving expression to his views

with incisiveness and force. Perhaps the brevity which he has imposed upon himself leads him at times into statements which are either truisms or utterly mistaken, as when he tells us that "the newly-born infant is no more of a person than a worm, except δυνάμει"—a dictum which would work havoc with the principle that the only true definition is dynamical and prophetic. Dr. Rashdall passes a suggestive criticism upon Hegelian writers when (p. 382) he says that almost without an exception they are guilty of the fallacy of assuming that "what constitutes existence for others is the same as what constitutes existence for self"; though his adjacent Berkeleyan theory of the existence of a thing is perhaps in want of a little more argumentative support than he has given it. His vindication of the reality of the Self against Mr. Bradley's objections is a powerful piece of writing. And discussion may possibly be awakened by his conclusion that "the Absolute is a society which includes God and all other spirits". The whole essay is so fresh and forcible that one wishes it had been very much longer. Here and there the argument has suffered from excessive condensation.

It would be unpardonable to conclude without drawing attention to the editor's essay on "Art and Personality," which stands out amid its surroundings as not only an illuminating philosophical statement but a critical piece of great literary beauty. If published separately it would unquestionably command a wider circle of interested readers than a book with a technically philosophical title can hope to reach. It abounds in fine sayings and æsthetic judgments which win the student's confidence by a certain wise enthusiasm, as well as their broad human reasonableness. The other essays, all of great merit on their own lines, are "The Problem of Freedom in its Relation to Psychology," by Mr. Boyce Gibson; "The Limits of Evolution," by Mr. Underhill; and "The Future of Ethics: Effort or Abstention?" by Dr. Bussell.

The questions to which this book is devoted may all be as old as philosophical reflection, but they are stated and argued with so much living interest, and such a pleasant freedom from repellent technical terms, that tyro and expert alike will find the discussion attractive. The writers are in open and aggressive sympathy with tendencies which have found powerful and popular expression in James' The Will to Believe and for which points of attachment may be found in the greater masters like Spinoza and Herbart. Voluntarism has still to settle accounts with Mr. Bradley, and some interesting passages-at-arms may be anticipated. Meanwhile we have to thank Oxford for another collection of instructive and inspiring dissertations, which is certain to remove any doubts which may have been felt as to the unwearied vigour and progressive vitality of present-day English philosophy. The project of the volume was a very happy one, and we hope for it a success adequate to its great merits.

H. R. MACKINTOSH.

Typical Modern Conceptions of God, or, The Absolute of German Romantic Idealism and of English Evolutionary Agnosticism, with a constructive Essay. By Joseph Alexander Leighton, Professor of Philosophy in Hobart College. New York, London & Bombay: Longmans, Green & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xii. + 190. Price 3s. 6d. net.

THIS book had its origin in a thesis presented to the Faculty of Cornell University with a view to obtaining the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. Some of the essays now embodied in the volume have been published previously in the *Philosophical Review*. The author's object is to give a comparative view of four typical ways of dealing with the problem of the Absolute, or the metaphysical conception of God, viz., those represented by Fichte, Hegel, Schleiermacher and Spencer. He omits Schelling for two reasons—because his changes of view were so "many and chameleon-like," and because his most valuable ideas are also to be found in the writings of the other great German thinkers.

Professor Leighton's style lacks vivacity and interest. His volume, however, is a careful study which gives evidence of wide reading and acute thinking. It gives a good account of these representative conceptions, bringing out their distinctive points with considerable ability and setting the one over against the other in a way that helps us the better to understand them. The author is often very happy in his definitions and his comparisons, and his criticisms in many cases are just and useful.

Herbert Spencer is taken as the "philosophical representative of modern physical views of the universe," and the contrast between his methods and those followed by Fichte and Hegel is ably set forth. Schleiermacher's relations to Spinoza, Kant and the great German Idealists are expounded with insight, and among other things the far-reaching importance of his doctrine of the ethical worth and the philosophical

and religious significance of individuality has ample justice done to it.

The strength of the book, however, from the philosophical point of view is in the chapters on Fichte and Hegel. These sages are dealt with as representing "first parallel and then diverging growths from the common root of the Kantian Critique". There is much that is of interest in the comparison instituted between these two—Fichte as one who passed step by step from purely ethical premises to a "distinctively metaphysical groundwork for life and religion," and Hegel as one who, without any such process of mental development, came at once to "a speculative, metaphysical conception of the Absolute as wholly immanent—as the temporal world of human experience".

The general result of this comparative study of four typical thinkers is stated to be that we have four sharply differentiated conceptions of the Absolute. They are described as "that of Will, finding its completion in the intuition of perfect attainment; that of Reason, comprehending itself as the eternal process of the world, and finding that all is good; that of Feeling, which apprehends the unity of things in a single and immediate act of consciousness; and finally that of Blind Energy, which seems, in a cross-section of time and as viewed by the average spectator, to have a definite direction, but which in reality has neither whence nor whither and no other goal than the meaningless eternal oscillation between states of motion and states of rest".

S. D. F. SALMOND.

An Introduction to the Thessalonian Epistles. Containing a Vindication of the Pauline Authorship of both Epistles and an Interpretation of the Eschatological Section of 2 Thess. ii. By E. H. ASKWITH, B.D., Chaplain of Trinity College, Cambridge. London: Macmillan & Co., 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. xi. + 144. Price 4s. net.

In this volume Mr. Askwith deals with the Thessalonian Epistles as he has previously dealt with the Epistle to the Galatians. He gives us compact statements and scholarly

discussions of the great questions, literary, critical and historical, that are connected with these epistles. He does this in a way that will make his book very useful to students of theology in particular, and he puts his matter always in clear and concise form. His examination of the arguments for and against the genuineness of the Second Epistle has the excellent qualities of candour and reasonableness. The question, however, which he deals with most at length is the interpretation of the eschatological paragraph in 2 Thessalonians ii. He recognises the difficulty of the subject and points out very acutely the doubtful spots in the various explanations which have been given of the passage on the hypothesis of its post-Pauline origin. Noticing the vulnerable points in the Nero-redivivus interpretation given by Baur and the Gnostic interpretations of Hilgenfeld and Bahnsen, he subjects the theories of Weiss and Bousset to a keen criticism of a more detailed kind. He acknowledges the ability with which Weiss supports the view that the ἀποστασία in question is a Jewish religious apostasy. He fully appreciates also the clever points in Bousset's attempt to explain the paragraph as an application of a legendary belief that before the advent of Messiah an Antichrist would arise out of the Jewish people claiming divine honours for himself, the Roman Empire being the κάτεχου and the Roman Emperor the κατέγων. He finds that these interpretations, however, fail to meet the circumstances of the case, and he works out another view, namely, that the ἀποστασία is to be taken not as a religious, but as a political apostasy, a rebellion of the Jewish people against Rome, and that the "man of lawlessness" is the Roman Emperor claiming divine honours for himself. His arguments are well and modestly stated, and he is not blind to the difficulties of his theory. It means for one thing that Paul expected Caligula's blasphemous attempt to be repeated by Claudius or a later Emperor. It has to be made to fit the view of the Roman State that appears to be taken elsewhere in the Pauline writings, and it has to make out a better case than Mr. Askwith has yet prepared for putting only a political sense on the ἀποστασία.

Prayer. By the Rev. A. J. Worlledge, M.A., Canon and Chancellor of Truro. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. xvi. + 378. Price 5s.

This volume belongs to "The Oxford Library of Practical Theology," edited by Canon Newbolt and Principal Darwell Stone. It is an attractive book in type and binding, and in respect of contents it answers well to the purpose of the series. It is quite the kind of book to be of use to a large class of readers—those who wish to have an intelligent idea of prayer, to understand what it involves, and to satisfy their reason on the difficulties connected with its reality and its method. Its object, however, is mainly practical. Intellectual difficulties are dealt with, but without having much space bestowed on them and without much that is in any sense striking being said on the subject. On the other hand the doctrinal aspects of prayer are set forth at greater length and with more power. After some discussion of the nature and necessity of prayer, its efficacy, and the arguments against that efficacy, the author proceeds to unfold the subject of prayer in relation to the Fatherhood of God, the answer in the Name of Christ, the action of the Holy Spirit in prayer, the theological virtues and other conditions of acceptable prayer. These are the topics on which the writer is seen at his best. But there are good chapters also on Christ's Example in Prayer, the Lord's Prayer, the Divisions of Prayer, Public Worship, the Subjects for Prayer, Hindrances and Limits in Prayer, etc. There is a tendency to make too much perhaps of the Church as a corporate body in some of the discussions of the book, especially in the sections dealing with the functions and operations of the Spirit in the matter of prayer. But the theological treatment of the subject in hand is always able, and in this respect the book takes a place of its own among recent contributions to the literature on Prayer. Thoughtful minds will find much to help them in intellectual apprehension and in spiritual feeling in this volume. It takes us over many questions of practical interest. It does this in a devout spirit and with a very capable hand.

For the Lord's Table, A Book of Communion Addresses. By the Rev. Charles Jerdan, M.A., LL.B. Second Edition, revised. Edinburgh and London: Oliphant, Anderson and Ferrier, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. xiv. + 417 Price 5s.

This volume is sent out in tasteful form by the publishers. It has been well received in its first issue, and it deserves the success it has had. It contains fifty-two brief chapters dealing with subjects suitable for meditation in connexion with the celebration of the Lord's Supper. It opens with two concise and careful statements on "The Uses of the Lord's Supper" and "The Two Christian Sacraments," and in the subsequent chapters it gives us appropriate meditations on such topics as The Love of Christ, The Surroundings of the Supper, The Paschal Lamb, The Cup of the New Covenant, Standing by the Cross, Eternal Life in Christ, etc. The addresses are of a very suitable length, and they are attractive in style. They are careful studies of the subjects selected, sympathetic in spirit, devout, edifying, and showing in many passages a remarkable felicity of expression.

The Law of Growth and other Sermons. By the Right Rev. PHILLIPS BROOKS, D.D., Late Bishop of Massachusetts. London: Macmillan & Co., 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. v. + 381. Price 6s.

We have had much from the strong pen and the warm heart of the great Boston preacher, whose death New England and the Christian world deplore. This new volume of discourses will be not less welcome than others that have been gratefully received from time to time. It discloses more of the master's art, his original and impressive treatment of religious themes, his peculiar use of Scripture, his uncommon gift of style, his power in driving things home to mind and conscience in terms almost equally telling to the highly educated and to the man in the street. It shows us more, too, of his limitations as well as his strength as a

religious teacher, while in every discourse we feel the throb of a large and ardent nature. There are many striking sermons in the volume—sermons that will not readily be forgotten when once read. To see what Phillips Brooks was one should read the discourses on "Half-life," "The Power of an Uncertain Future," "The Battlements of the Lord," "The Holiness of Duty," "The Strength of Consecration," etc.

The Study of Religion. By Morris Jastrow, Jun., Ph.D., Professor in the University of Pennsylvania. London: Walter Scott, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xiv. + 451. Price 6s.

This forms one of the volumes of "The Contemporary Science Series," edited by Havelock Ellis. It is appropriately dedicated to Professor C. P. Tiele to whose works and friendship the writer acknowledges his great indebtedness. The volume is divided into three parts, headed respectively "General Aspects," "Special Aspects," and "Practical Aspects". The first deals with the history and Character of the Study of Religion, the Classification of Religions, the Character and Definitions of Religion, and the Origin of Religion. The second part discusses such questions as the relations of Religion and Ethics, Religion and Philosophy, Religion and Mythology, etc. The third is occupied with the Study of the Sources, the Historical Study of Religion in Colleges, Universities and Seminaries, etc. The plan, therefore, is large and comprehensive. The numerous questions handled are put and answered with commendable conciseness and in a clear and pointed style. One of the most valuable chapters is the one on the Classification of Religions. The leading schemes, as elaborated by Tiele, Hegel, Réville, Max Müller, Kuenen and others, are reviewed and criticised at length. The writer concludes by propounding a scheme of his own, viz., a fourfold division into the Religions of Savages, those of Primitive Culture, those of Advanced Culture, and those which emphasise as the ideal the co-extensiveness of religion with life, and aim at a consistent accord between religious doctrine and religious practice. This classification is urged as superior Vol. XII.-No. 6. 35

to others because it rests upon a single principle which presides over the development of religion itself, namely, "the relation of religion to life". We confess that, while this scheme certainly has the merit of simplicity, we fail to see that it marks any advance. It is less scientific indeed than others that will readily occur to readers. For practical purposes it may have its uses, but it lacks the scientific note of a single idea or a unifying principle. Dr. Jastrow's criticisms of other systems, however, are often of much force. As to his own idea of Religion he seems to find its source in "the sense of the Infinite," and he affirms the existence of a religious faculty as an essential part of human nature. This he holds to be "most necessary to an interpretation of the facts of religion". On the question of the possibility and actuality of a Revelation or a Revealed Religion he is not very definite. He appears to avoid coming to close quarters on the subject. He contends certainly that the claim to be based on Revelation is a claim of which the science of religion can take no cognisance. He confesses, however, that there are "hidden influences at work in shaping the religious fortunes of mankind". He is content to recognise their presence. He cares not by what name they may be called, but he admits that there "remains an element which cannot be explained by historical research". On the Christian religion he makes some good and appreciative remarks, especially with regard to its aim to unite religion and life, its service to civilisation, its relation to modern culture, etc. But there are also some statements which are of a different kind, e.g., as to its being a philosophical system and its history "to a large extent a history of philosophic thought applied to religious problems"; as to its containing exaggerated emotional tendencies, etc. The student, however, will find much that will help him in the book. The matter is well arranged; the method is purely historical; the style is clear and compact; the amount of information which is supplied is large and it is given in a very handy form. For the purposes of a handbook this volume will be found most nseful.

Redeeming Judgment, and other Sermons. By John Kelman, M.A., Leith. Edinburgh and London: Oliphant, Anderson & Ferrier, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. 243.

In this volume we have part of the fruits of a long ministry. It is made up of a number of pulpit discourses selected from the mass of those delivered during a pastorate extending over more than forty years. They will be valued by many outside the circle of those who heard them. They deal with great themes, the "Grandeur of Prayer," "God's Rejoicing Love," "The Valley of Achor for a Door of Hope," "God Greater than our Heart," "Paul's Triumph in Christ," and the like. They handle these themes with discernment and force, setting forth the old evangelical faith in its fulness, but in terms remarkably free from the formal, traditional phraseology. There is a welcome freshness and independence in the way in which old truths are stated and commended to attention. The clear, simple and effective style in which these discourses are written adds much to their attractiveness. Devout minds will find much to edify and help them in this volume.

The Epistles of St. John: the Greek Text with Notes and Essays.

By Brooke Foss Westcott, D.D., D.C.L., sometime
Lord Bishop of Durham and Honorary Fellow of
Trinity and King's Colleges, Cambridge. Fourth
edition. London: Macmillan & Co., 1902. 8vo, pp.
lvi. + 380. Price 12s. 6d.

This commentary, first published in 1883, has now reached its fourth edition. Very little change has been made in the book since it was first given to the public. A continuous translation was added to each section in the second edition, which was issued in 1885, and some minor inaccuracies were corrected. But the interpretation remained unchanged. The third edition was in all essential matters a reprint of the second, with a few corrections of misprints, mistakes in references, and the like. This fourth edition is again a reprint of the third, the only changes being the correction

of some errata and the incorporation of a few slight additions found noted in the lamented author's copy. It is not necessary to say much in addition to what has been previously said on the merits of this commentary. The book has secured a high place in the list of commentaries on these Epistles. There is much in the Johannine writings, and especially in these letters, that suited the genius of Bishop Westcott, in which the mystic and the verbal precisian seemed to meet. His peculiar exegetical gifts are seen, therefore, in this book at their strongest and at times also at their weakest. We find in the notes a minute attention to language and grammar which is often fruitful but which also at times is pressed too far. We have also a spiritual reading of the ideas which is in many cases just and helpful, but which has a tendency at times to descend to vagueness, The essays and extended notes are an interesting feature of the volume. Most of them are of great value. The one that is least satisfactory is that on "The Idea of Christ's Blood in the New Testament". Here the path of the historical interpreter appears to us to be left at more than one point, and conclusions advocated which cannot be sustained by a just and adequate exegesis of the Old Testament terms and usages at the foundation of the New Testament statements. While this volume has not the wonderful insight of Rothe's exposition nor the brilliancy of Haupt's, it is undoubtedly an important contribution to the interpretation of these Epistles, and one which all students ought to have by them.

The Dawn of the Reformation. By HERBERT B. WORKMAN, M.A., Author of The Church of the West in the Middle Ages. Vol. I., The Age of Wyclif. Vol. II., The Age of Hus. London: Charles H. Kelly. Small cr. 8vo, vol. i., 1901, pp. xvi. + 310; vol. ii., pp. xvi. + 374. Price 2s. 6d. each.

These volumes belong to the series of "Books for Bible Students," edited by the Rev. Arthur E. Gregory, D.D. They are both remarkably well done, and will be most useful

in making the preparation for the great Reformation movement of the sixteenth century better known. They are written in so lively and attractive a style that no one can become weary in the perusal of them. But they are much more than popular sketches, or skilful reproductions of other men's labours. They represent patient and honest toil, and trained methods of historical investigation. Mr. Workman has gone to the sources and has looked into things with his own eyes. It is a student's work, an independent investigator's results that are given in the pleasant pages of these volumes. The object which Mr. Workman has set before him, as he states it himself, is, "to trace the various influences and forces both within and without the Church, which produced the great revolution of the sixteenth century". He has been faithful to this object and has carried it out with much success, and with a proper sense of the fact that, with all that has been done by so many competent hands, there are still many things in connexion with the Reformation, and especially with its causes and beginnings, on which we are far from clear. In the case of Wyclif the confession is made very frankly that much work has yet to be done before we may know for certain how the reformer influenced his generation. And in the case of the Bohemian reformer and his times there is the same recognition of the limits of certainty in the present condition of our knowledge. The question of the inconsistencies of Wyclif is handled with care and discernment. Mr. Workman indicates his suspicion that "the great Englishman was rather the head and inspiration of a school of workers than himself actually responsible for all that passes even to-day under his name". The volume on Hus begins with an excellent chapter on the great schism, a sketch of the Council of Pisa, and a brief account of the forerunners of Hus. The fourth chapter deals with the life of the Reformer and his troubles in Prague. A separate chapter is very properly devoted to the Council of Constance, of which we get a very vivid view. The closing chapter is occupied with the trial and death of Hus. Then follow a series of appendices, which are of much interest, dealing as

they do with such subjects as the election of Urban VI., St. John Nepomucen, the Safe-Conduct of Hus, etc. All through the best authorities, Mansi, Hardt, Erler, Finke, Palacky, Loserth, etc., are consulted and used with independent judgment. The late Bishop Creighton receives a special tribute of honour for the judgment as well as the learning with which he treated the period. The importance of Hus, in the author's opinion, is in the fact that he is "the representative of the new spirit of consecration to Truth, as distinct from Authority, which, more than anything else, was destined to sweep away Mediævalism"; and the value of the period to which Hus belonged lies, he thinks, "in the demonstration it gives that reform from within was impossible". These are conclusions with which all will agree who follow Mr. Workman's luminous parrative.

S. D. F. SALMOND.

Arabien vor dem Islam.

Von Dr. Otto Weber. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; London: Williams & Norgate, 1901. 8vo, pp. 35. Price 60 Pf.

Fünf Neue Arabische Landschaftsnamen im Alten Testament.

Beleuchtet von Eduard König, Dr. Phil. u. Theol. ordentlichem Professor an der Univers. Bonn. Mit einem Exkurs über die Paradiesesfrage. Berlin: Reuther und Reichard; London: Williams & Norgate, 1902. 8vo, pp. 78. Price M.3.

This is the day of Archæology. Egyptology and Assyriology have won their place among the scientific studies of our time. Arabiology is not so prominent. But it is with us. And the results it can show are of no little interest and importance. The two monographs mentioned above form part of the literature which is growing up about the discoveries recently made in Arabia. Both treatises refer in part to the same subject. The five place-names discussed by Dr. König are claimed by Dr. Weber as a fruit of recent discoveries in Arabia (p. 24).

Dr. Weber's little work covers a wide field. The purpose of the writer is to give a vidimus of the history of Arabia from the earliest period to the conquest of the Peninsula by the Mohammedans. In an octavo of thirty-five pages this can be done only in the most concise form. And in the circumstances Dr. Weber has done very well.

A century ago Arabia was practically a terra incognita. In 1810 inscriptions discovered in South Arabia were first made known to Europe. Others followed in the thirties and succeeding years. But the most important are those discovered and reported by Edward Glaser from 1882-94. These inscriptions reveal a country very different from what Arabia

was generally supposed to be. While the Semites sprung from Abraham were toiling in Egypt under Pharaoh's task-masters, another branch of the Semitic family in South Arabia had established a powerful kingdom and reached a high degree of culture. This Minnæan kingdom, of which the capital was Karnâwu (Karna), was well organised. Its influence appears for a time to have been paramount throughout the Arabian peninsula. It was the centre of the commerce between Europe and the East. In the north-west, in the Biblical district of Midian, its colony of Mutsran played an important part in the commerce of the second millennium B.C. It has an interesting place in Biblical discussions at the close of the second millennium A.D.

The result of recent discoveries and discussions is that, for the present, Arabia is by many regarded as the cradle of the Semitic race. In the Minnæans we have the Semites at their purest and best. It is of some interest to note that the alphabetic characters employed in the Minnæan inscriptions closely resemble the Phœnician and old Hebrew characters. There are differences, and Dr. Weber conjectures that a common mother-alphabet lay behind them (p. 13). Noteworthy also are the points of contact with the Old Testament, especially in matters of ritual (cf. p. 17). A considerable amount of information is given regarding the religious practice of these ancient Arabians (pp. 15-21).

It is Dr. Weber's opinion that Arabian Semites crossed the Gulf to Chaldæa, and brought themselves into contact with the Sumerians as early as the fourth, or perhaps even the fifth millennium B.C. About the close of the third millennium B.C. Canaanites settled in Syria and Palestine, and the Hyksos in Egypt. At the beginning of the second millennium Semites from North Arabia pressed into Mesopotamia, and Aramæan nomads repeatedly invaded the rich country of Babylonia and Assyria. At the same time Phœnicians and Hebrews settled on the eastern shores of the Mediterranean, the Chaldæans asserted themselves in South Babylonia, and the Minnæans pushed their way southward in Arabia, and founded the kingdom already referred to. The predominance

of the Minnæans lasted from about B.C. 1400 to B.C. 700. Shortly before the latter date the Sabæan nomads were pushed southwards through the victorious progress of Tiglath-Pileser. These Sabæans encountered and overthrew the Minnæans, and for some 400 years were the ruling power in South Arabia. They extended their sway over the country to the south and east, over Katabania and Hadramaut. But Alexander came. Alexandria was founded. And the commercial position which had been occupied by Southern Arabia for many centuries was lost for ever. About B.C. 115 the Himyarites, a tribe whose home was in the extreme south-west of the Peninsula, overthrew the Sabæans, and introduced a new regime which lasted to A.D. 300.

At that time the Abyssinians, whose fathers had crossed from South Arabia to Africa, returned to the tribal home, and made themselves masters of the Government. These Abyssinians were largely Christians and the Christian religion was in this way introduced into South Arabia. But dark days dawned for the Christians. After the destruction of Jerusalem a number of Jews made their way to South Arabia. Through the influence of a Jew whose name is given as Dhu Nuwas the Himyarites regained the ascendency, and the Christians were subjected to cruel persecution. Thus things continued till in 525 the Abyssinians, through the support of Constantinople, regained power. This led the old anti-Christian nobility to invoke the aid of the Persians, who overthrew the Abyssinians in 575, and set up a government in Yemen, dependent on Persia. Fifty years later came the Moslems, who conquered the whole Peninsula, and led a movement from Arabia far surpassing in influence and extent any migration of former times.

Such is Dr. Weber's survey of the history of Arabia to the days of Mahomet. It is only now that the secrets of the land are being disclosed. It is to be hoped that what has been revealed is but the beginning.

Professor König's volume supplies a good example of critical controversy in the hands of a capable and reasonable

German scholar. Professor Hommel has claimed for Arabia certain place-names which, with general consent, were wont to be assigned to other lands. In certain quarters this view of the Munich Orientalist has not met with the favour which had been expected for it. Professor Hommel has indicated his dissatisfaction with the result, and in this connexion has mentioned the name of Professor König. This has brought the Bonn professor into the field, and he sets himself to discover the proper historical point of view for the settlement of the question in dispute. Everything depends on the attainment of the proper point of view. "Two men observing the same object will describe it diversely, according to the point of view from which either beholds it; in the eyes of one, it shall be a fair prospect, to the other a barren waste, and neither may see aright." Whether Professor König has succeeded remains to be seen. To some of his conclusions assent may, without much difficulty, be conceded. Others suggest doubts or raise questions. And it may be assumed that the end of the matter has not yet been reached.

The five place-names mentioned by Weber (assigned by him, as by Hommel, to Arabia), and discussed by König, are Ashur, Mutzran, 'Eber han-nahar, Kush, and Aribi (בירב).

Ashur and Ashurim, in the Old Testament, have generally been assigned to the empire whose capital was Nineveh. But in Gen. xxv. 3, Ashurim (משרת) designate a tribe sprung from Jokshan, a son of Abraham by Keturah. And König agrees with Hommel that the home of this tribe was in North-West Arabia, bordering on Edom. But whereas the Bonn professor doubts whether this tribe is mentioned elsewhere in the Old Testament (p. 9), Hommel holds that, in the passages discussed, not merely שורר של should be explained of the Semitic tribe referred to in Gen. xxv. 3.

The term מצרים as found in the Old Testament has been with general consent referred to Egypt, the kingdom of the Pharaohs on the Nile. But the Arabian inscriptions referred to in the preceding article reveal a province of the ancient

Minnæan kingdom which lay along the north of the Elanitic Gulf, corresponding almost with the Biblical Midian. The name of this province was Mutzran; and the question is, whether in the passages discussed, the term אמצרים should not be applied to this province in Northern Arabia, rather than to Egypt. Hommel says, yes, and König generally disagrees. This part of the discussion is interesting because it raises a question regarding the locality of the oppression of Israel prior to the Exodus. Was the country of the oppression not the Egypt of the Nile, but the Mutzran on the east of the Elanitic Gulf? In this connection Joel iv. 19 is of importance. In this passage מצרים is associated with הדום in an unjust assault on Judah. Whatever date may be assigned to Joel, the hostility of Edom is easily understood. But where, in the Old Testament, do we find a Mitzraim that could, on any probable view, be associated with Edom, as in this passage of Joel, unless it were the place of Israel's bondage prior to the Exodus under Moses? [On the question, whether Israel started on their journey to Canaan not from Egypt proper, but from such a district as Mutzran of the Minnæan inscriptions, vid. Encycl. Bib., art. "Exodus," by Cheyne.] A third question is to determine the reference in the expression 'Eber han-nahar. In the Old Testament as a proper noun, is understood to apply to the Euphrates. To one stationed in Palestine 'Eber han-nahar would suggest a district to the east of that river. And König holds that Abraham was most probably designated the Hebrew (העברי) because he had emigrated to the western regions of Asia from Haran which lay to the east of the Euphrates. According to Hommel the expression arose in Babylonia at a time when Palestine was a province of Babylon; in other words, in the time of the Khammurabi dynasty, when Abraham, the Hebrew (ha-'Ibrî), migrated "from the other side of the river". The name is thus connected with the appearance of Abraham in Canaan. Hommel holds that in the Old Testament the expression 'Eber han-nahar is nowhere used of Mesopotamia, but always of the western bank of the Euphrates. (Ancient Hebrew Tradition, etc., pp. 257-8, 324.) The nahar may be that of the Wādi Sirhân which flows to the east of the Arabian Ashur and Edom.

The fourth place is Kûsh, which, in a number of passages referred to, Hommel finds in Central Arabia; König supports the old view that Ethiopia to the south of Egypt is meant.

Perhaps the least probable of Hommel's conclusions discussed by König is that which concerns the kingdom of Aribi (the fifth place-name), to which Hommel finds a reference in Hos. v. 13, x. 6. In the cuneiform inscriptions references occur to a district—a kingdom, named Aribi—governed by queens, which was tributary to Assyria. This country, according to Hommel, bordered on Ashur-Edom. He thinks that it was a queen of this Aribi that visited Solomon (I Kings x. I): if so, this district would be the home of the Sabæans.

But how can the of Hosea be identified with this North-Arabian Aribi? The orthographical difficulty is got over by an appeal to a practice among the Assyrians to omit an initial yod in a case of this kind: hence the Jareb of Hosea becomes the Aribi of the inscriptions. The objections to such an explanation of Hosea are serious. Apart from the question of orthography just referred to, Hos. v. 13 raises a grammatical difficulty, partly from the parallelism, and partly from the absence of the article with In Hos. x. 6 there is a more serious difficulty. The Ashur of the verse, according to Hommel, is the North-Arabian Ashur, and the King Jareb is the King of Aribi, bordering on Ashur. What is meant? To which country was the calf of Samaria to be brought as a trophy of conquest, a gift in honour of the conqueror? To Ashur? or to Aribi? König's criticism here is to the point. He holds it to be obvious that the expressions Ashur and Jareb do not represent two distinct countries, and that Ashur and Melekh Jareb indicate Assyria, and its great king (p. 65). There can scarcely be a doubt but that König is correct. Assyria proper was the great world-power when Hosea wrote. That power was threatening the northern kingdom with invasion and overthrow. In these circumstances, to explain the

prophet's words by an Ashur and Aribi in Arabia, whose existence as separate dominions at the time is doubtful, and of whose power (assuming their existence) to threaten Israel with overthrow we have no information, is to fly in the face of well-accredited history, and to render all but impossible an intelligent exposition of the words of a prophet who, more than most prophets, sought to save his country from an actually impending doom.

In the excursus on Paradise König declines to accept the site proposed by Hommel. The theory of the latter is that the first and second rivers (Pison and Gihon) refer to the Central Arabian Wādis, Er-rumma and Dawàsir, which are lost in the sands of the Arabian desert. The name of the third river, Hiddekel, generally regarded as the Tigris, Hommel explains as the Palm-Wādi [Arab. Khadd = Wādi. and diklah = palm]. This he identifies with the Wādi Sirhân which passes by the east of the North-Arabian Ashur. The fourth river is, of course, the Euphrates.

There are serious objections to this view. In the first place it is scarcely probable that the term Nahar (בהב), which is used in the Old Testament text, would be applied to Wādis which disappear in the wilderness. Nahal (575) would be expected, in accordance with the usage. (Of course it is possible that these Wadis were originally streams, worthy of the name נהל: but a conjecture of that kind does not furnish a proper basis for an important conclusion.) But in the second place there is a geographical objection of greater importance. According to Gen. ii. 8 the garden was planted eastward (מקדם) in Eden. It may be presumed that the Hebrews took their Paradise tradition with them when they left Ur of the Chaldees, and we should expect the site of the garden to lie east of that place; in other words, east of the Euphrates. According to Hommel the Paradisestream was the Shatt-El-Arab, and the four heads into which, according to the Old Testament narrative, the stream was parted, were four arms of the Shatt-El-Arab. If the expression eastward is used in its ordinary and natural sense,

the site of Paradise should be looked for on the east side of the Euphrates. But, according to Hommel, the districts mentioned in connexion with Paradise all lay to the west of the Euphrates, and are found in Arabia. Havilah is North-Eastern Arabia, the hinterland of Bahrein. Ashur is in the north-west of Arabia, bordering on Edom. Kush is in Central Arabia. Hommel's answer to the question "Where lav Paradise?" cannot be said to be made good. König is justified in looking for the site on the east of the Euphrates. But the Bonn professor looks northwards as well as eastwards. In Gen. xxix. I we read that Jacob, when he left Bethel, journeyed to the land of the people of the East (בני קרם). His road lay to the north-east. And König follows his example, and searches for the site of Paradise in the still little known region in which lie the sources of the Euphrates and the Tigris, with which the early history of the race is closely associated (cf. the narrative of the flood), and from which the Aramæans, according to Amos (ix. 7), started on their special mission among the nations. In that same district, in all probability, according to Hebrew tradition, stood the mountain of God to which Isaiah refers (Isa. xiv. 13 f.). To the Hebrews, accepting such a tradition, a more probable site could not easily be suggested for that garden which God planted for the race at the beginning.

So much at present, more may be said in the future. The reader must turn to Professor König's little volume for the details of his argument. One passage may be referred to in order to show the importance of the point of view which he sets himself to determine for us. Numbers xxiv. 22 is an important verse, and supplies a good example of the kind of discussion which has now to be faced. The words, as in the R.V., run thus: "Nevertheless Kain [m. the Kenites] shall be wasted, until [m. how long?] Ashur shall carry thee away captive". Hommel speaks of this and the following verses as the most noteworthy of all the passages in the Old Testament, which contain a reference to the ancient Ashur in South Palestine.\(^1\) König says No. He holds that a

¹ Ancient Hebrew Tradition, etc., Eng. Trans., p. 245.

conquering power is referred to which may be expected, sooner or later, to overcome the Kenites, and annex their territories. Such a power he holds to be the Assyrian proper, and in support of his view he refers to the words of verse 23: "Alas, who shall live when God doeth this [m. establisheth him]?" These words König explains in connexion with 2 Kings xviii. 25, where the King of Assyria claims that he was sent against Jerusalem by Jehovah (cf. Isa. x. 5, ff.). The question of the point of view at once arises. If the historical point of view is that of the days of Isaiah, König's argument is good. At that time the Assyrians of the Tigris were in the field and were recognised as the great world-power of the day. And if a prophetic utterance in which Ashur was depicted as a conquering power claimed the attention of Isaiah or his contemporaries, the Ashur, whose capital was Nineveh, and which filled the prophetic horizon of the time, would naturally be thought of. The Balaam prophecy of Num. xxiv. belongs to JE, the earliest of the critics' documents, which appeared not long before Isaiah's day. But Hommel's point of view is that of the Exodus period. "This whole prophecy," he says, "owes all its significance to the fact that it was delivered in the Mosaic period." And the question is-Was Assyria proper known to Moses and his contemporaries as a conquering power, which would one day swallow up the Kenites? If not, and if Ashur must still be the Ashur of the Tigris, have we in Num. xxiv. a piece of prediction pure and simple, without a historical basis in the circumstances and knowledge of Israel at the time?

GEO. G. CAMERON.

¹ Ancient Hebrew Tradition, etc., Eng. Trans., p. 248.

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WE have also to notice a new and revised edition, the fifth, of Dr. G. Vance Smith's volume on The Bible and its Theology,1 dealing with the Scriptures, Christian doctrine, the Person and the Work of Christ, and the popular Christian belief, from the standpoint of free criticism and Unitarian theology, in the same way as in the earlier editions, but bringing the discussions of these great questions up to date so as to grapple not only with the positions of writers like Dr. Dale and Canon Liddon, but with those also of the writers of Lux Mundi and others; The Ground of Faith,2 by the Rev. R. S. Mylne, M.A., B.C.L., a series of five sermons preached in the Cathedral Church of Bangor, on the great topics of the Word of God, the Cross of Christ, Divine Worship, the Primitive Church and the Faith of Christ, simple and direct in style, and giving devout and emphatic expression to the supreme importance of faith and the great verities with which it is conversant: a brief monograph on Pascal's views of knowledge and faith, Wissen und Glauben bei Pascal,3 by Dr. Kurt Wurmuth, giving a characterisation of Pascal, first as the mathematician and then as the Jansenist, and furnishing a good statement and analysis of the main points in his theory of the relations of knowledge and truth, his conceptions of God, Christ, original sin, etc.; Das menschliche Personenleben und der christliche Glaube nach Paulus,4 by Dr. Alexander Röhricht of Bonn, an examination of the Pauline teaching of man's nature, sin, the Person of Christ, the Spirit, baptism, faith, regeneration, good

¹London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xv. + 331. Price 3s. 6d. net.

² London: Elliot Stock, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. x. + 90. Price 2s. 6d. net.

³ Berlin: Reimer, 1902. 8vo, pp. viii. + 56. Price M.1.50.

⁴Gütersloh: Bertelsmann; London: Williams & Norgate, 1902. Cr. 8vo, pp. viii. + 155. Price 2s. 6d. net.

works, the final appearing of Christ, the hope of the end, etc., carefully done, and of undoubted value, but in the case of many of the discussions too brief to admit of very adequate treatment; a new edition of the first volume of the late Professor Wilhelm Moeller's Lehrbuch der Kirchengeschichte,1 a book which most students of Church history, and especially teachers of it, have learned to value greatly and which ought to prove more acceptable and useful even than it has been, revised as it is and carefully brought up to date by Professor Hans von Schubert of Kiel; a brief, appreciative, interesting sketch of Lord Shaftesbury, Peer and Philanthropist,2 by R. Ed. Pengelly; two stories by Florence Witts, The Sisters of Trenton Manse,3 and In the Day of His Power, 4 both written in a bright, attractive style, elevating and instructive; the twenty-third volume of Young England,5 an annual which has had a long and prosperous career and which continues to be so admirably conducted as to ensure for it a wide welcome among our youth; The Girls' Empire,6 an annual intended for English-speaking girls all over the world, one which we can cordially recommend as eminently suited to interest and instruct those whose intellectual profit it has specially in view; Joseph and Moses, the Founders of Israel,7 a new volume by the author of How to read the Prophets, expounding those parts of the book of Genesis which are held to be essentially prophetic, and setting forth the prophetic teaching in those parts-a book well and care-

¹ Dritte (Schluss-) Abtheilung. Zweite Auflage. Tübingen und Leipzig: J. C. B. Mohr; London: Williams & Norgate, 1902. 8vo, pp. xx. + 465-842. Price 8s. net.

² London: The Sunday School Union. Small cr. 8vo, pp. 128. Price

³ London: The Sunday School Union. Small cr. 8vo, pp. 159. Price 15, 6d.

⁴ London: The Sabbath School Union. Small cr. 8vo, pp. 143. Price s.

⁵ London: The Sunday School Union. Pp. iv. + 494. Price 5s.

⁶ London: Andrew Melrose. Pp. iv. + 480. Price 5s.

Being their lives as read in the light of the oldest Prophetic writings of the Bible. By the Rev. Buchanan Blake, B.D. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark, 1901. Cr. 8vo, pp. xxiv. + 265. Price 4s.

fully written, reproducing in a clear and telling way the narratives of Judah and Israel in their proper historical setting and their spiritual significance; the second volume of Boys of our Empire,1 a magazine very ably conducted by Howard H. Spicer, richly illustrated, full of varied, useful and entertaining matter and deservedly popular among boys throughout the English-speaking world; a pamphlet by the Rev. George W. Sprott, North Berwick, entitled The Doctrine of Schism in the Church of Scotland,2 being the Macleod Memorial Lecture for 1902, in which some interesting historical particulars are given, while the principle of the Church's unity and the differences of certain eminent divines in Scotland and on the Continent are applied in a way which would leave little or no liberty of action in critical times beyond mere protest; Through Roman Spectacles,3 an instructive volume by J. Alexander Clapperton, M.A., consisting mainly of articles reprinted from the Wesleyan Methodist Magazine, in which under the headings of the "Soldier," the "Father," "Money," "Woman," the "Empire," the "Slave," the "Roman Boy," etc., important points in ancient Latin law and custom are explained and applied to the illustration of the New Testament.

There are some notable articles in the October issue of Mind. Particular attention will be drawn to the opening paper by Mr. F. H. Bradley on "The Definition of Will"—the first of a series of three which have it as their object to explain and defend the definition of will given on former occasions by the writer. The discussion keeps within the region of empirical psychology, and deals with the will which is "known and experienced as such". A volition is described as "the self-realisation of an idea with which the self is identified," and "in psychology there is in the end no will except in the sense of volition". The use of the phrase "a standing will" is admitted to be legitimate in the sense in which we speak of a "standing belief" or "a

¹ London: Andrew Melrose. Pp. 836. Price 7s. 6d.

² Edinburgh and London: Blackwood & Sons. Pp. 65.

³ London: C. H. Kelly, 1902. Small cr. 8vo, pp. 155. Price 1s. 6d.

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permanent attention" "where for the moment we are not supposed to be actually attending". But it is affirmed that in the proper sense there is "no actual will except in volitions". Thus "will is action outward or inward, but on the other hand not every action is really will". In these articles Mr. Bradley is to endeavour to remove certain mistakes in the hope of recommending his view of will as one that is sustained by the overwhelming testimony of language and experience. Among the minor papers there is an interesting discussion of the "Notion of Order," by E. T. Dixon

The International Journal of Ethics for October opens with a paper of a popular order on "Criticism of Public Men," by Waldo L. Cook, of Springfield, Mass. There is also a paper of more general interest on "The Pampered Children of the Poor," by Ida M. Metcalf. Mr. A. J. Taylor, of Owens College, Manchester, contributes a very readable and suggestive article on "Mind and Nature," which deals with the notion of "unperceived material existence," and vindicates the application of the categories of personal and social life to the realm of physical nature. The whole question is considered from the standpoint of everyday thought, not from that of ultimate metaphysical issues, and the conclusion is that we have "reason to regard the world of physical nature itself as composed of beings of an intelligent and purposive kind, and thus far akin to our own inner life" There is an acute discussion also of the ethics of Nietzsche and Guyan by Alfred Fouillée.

In the fourth part of the third volume of the ably conducted Danish Journal, *Teologisk Tidsskrift*, we notice good articles by A. G. S. Prior, on "the Epistle to the Romans" (its integrity, etc.), and Ch. Nielsen on I Cor. xv. 29 ("baptised for the dead").

The third issue of the Revue Néo-Scolastique for the year contains good papers by G. Simons on "Le principe de raison suffisante en Logique et en Metaphysique"; L. Noël on "La Philosophie de la Contingence"; G. R. Woad on "The Philosophy of Professor Grote of Cambridge," etc.

The Archiv für Religionswissenschaft, v. 3, is rich in matter relating to the history and literature of religions, W. Geiger writing on "Buddhistische Kunstmythologie"; Ed. Lehmann on "The Later Avesta"; Bruno Meissner on "Babylonische Bestandtheile in modernen Sagen und Gebräuchen," etc.

In the Methodist Review for Sept.-Oct., the "Theology of Horace Bushnell" is expounded by Professor G. B. Stevens of Yale, who takes his special contribution to religious thought to have been chiefly in these four points: his theory of church life, his theory of theological knowledge, his idea of the supernatural, and his ethical interpretation of the Atonement. Professor König of Bonn, in an article with the title "Was the Religion in Abraham's Native Country Monotheistic?" meets the arguments of F. Hommel, Friedrich Delitzsch, and W. F. Warren in support of the position that Abraham brought monotheism with him from his native country and that the monotheism of the Old Testament was borrowed from the Babylonian religion. He recognises how President Warren's position differs in method and in aim from that of the others, but regards it as equally inadequate. President Warren gives a brief reply, reaffirming his view that the ineffable Hebrew name Jahve was developed from a shorter divine name found among the Babylonians.

The October number of the Journal of Theological Studies opens with a criticism of "Contentio Veritatis," by Professor Sanday, in which special attention is given to the essays of Messrs. Rashdall and Inge, while the inadequacies and overstatements in Mr. Allen's paper on "Modern Criticism and the New Testament" are pointed out with a firm though considerate hand. Dr. Barnes contributes a "Study of the First Lesson for Christmas Day" (Isaiah ix. 1-7); Dr. Strong continues his elaborate "History of the Theological Term 'Substance'"; and under the title of "Psychology and Religion," Mr. C. C. J. Bebb gives an able criticism of Professor James's "The Varieties of Religious Experience," very favourable and appreciative on the whole. The smaller papers are also of interest, e.g., one by Mr. F. C. Burkitt, on the "Interpretation of 'Bar-Jesus,'" also one by Dr. C.

Taylor on "The Pericope of the Adulteress" (John vii. 53-viii. 11), calling attention (after Professor Nestle) to a parallel in the earlier *Didascalia* and pointing to certain things which appear to indicate that the Pericope was known to the author of the *Shepherd of Hermas*.

The current issue of the Church Quarterly Review begins with a readable but rather slight paper on "Religion in Oxford," which is followed by an able article on "Lamarck, Darwin and Weismann". The elaborate papers on "The Holy Eucharist" and "Missions to Hindus" are continued, the historical inquiry in the case of the former being brought down to the death of Edward VI. in 1553, and bringing out the fact that at that period "those who were prominent and held high office in the Church of England had ceased to believe that the consecrated bread and wine are the Body and Blood of Christ, and that in the Eucharist there is a sacrifice of Christ's Body and Blood". Among other papers we notice one on "Education and Religious Liberty," in which the Education Bill is again discussed, but without any proper appreciation of the principles at the foundation of the determined opposition to it. Perhaps the best contribution to the number is the article on "Criticism, Rational and Irrational," which deals with the Dictionary of the Bible, the Encyclopædia Biblica, and the new volumes of the Encyclopadia Britannica, and says some plain things about the fanciful and unscientific character of much of the work of Canon Cheyne, Professor Schmiedel and their associates.

The Hibbert Journal, which is projected as a Quarterly Review of Religion, Theology and Philosophy, and is published by Messrs. Williams and Norgate under the editorial care of Messrs. L. P. Jacks and G. Dawes Hicks, starts on its career with a number which contains several articles of mark, and in its general contents answers well to the idea of the enterprise. The reviews of books, of which there is a fair selection, are done with much care, and are really informing. The article that will probably be felt by most readers to be most attractive is one by Dr. Stopford Brooke on "Matthew Arnold, a poet of fifty years ago," in

which much is admirably well said of the respects in which Arnold was unfortunate in the time when he began to be a poet, the Stoic elements in his poetry, the note of sadness for himself and for the world that broke down his Stoicism, the way in which he dealt with the problem of life, etc. The most profound and searching paper is contributed by Professor Royce of Harvard on "The Concept of the Infinite". The concluding article is also one of great interest. It takes the form of a symposium on "Catastrophes and Moral Order," the writers being Professor G. H. Howison, the Rev. R. A. Armstrong, and the Rev. Dr. R. F. Horton. The first of these writers takes refuge in a new idealism which would refer Nature and all its woes derivatively to minds, but would present these "as the minds other than God". The second looks to the spiritual experience of the individual man as the main trust of Theism in face of all mysteries of pain and evil. The third thinks we have the solution in our own hands, inasmuch as we can triumph over them in mind and transform them. As to the other articles, the opening one on "The Basis of Christian Doctrine," by Professor Percy Gardner, is essentially a development of the principle that there is no enduring foundation for doctrinal construction except observation and experience. The discussion is marred by an occasional lack of precision in the use of terms. Professor Gardner uses the term Soteriology, e.g., but means by that the doctrine of man. Sir Oliver Lodge's article on "The Outstanding Controversy between Science and Faith," brings us only to the conclusion that there can be no complete reconciliation between science and faith until the opposite answers given by orthodox modern science on the one hand, and religion of all times on the other, to the question whether we live in a universe permeated with life and mind, are made consistent. Mr. F. C. Conybeare attempts to prove, as against Westcott and Hort, that there were "Early Doctrinal Modifications of the Gospels": the instances which he adduces being Matt. i. 16, xxviii. 10; Matt. xix. 17 = Mark x. 18 = Luke xviii. 19. The argument is not likely to convince many. It proceeds all through on a depreciation

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of the best testimony within our reach, viz., the oldest MSS. and on the theory that we have better witnesses in the versions even when the manuscripts in which we possess them differ widely among themselves, and in Patristic quotations even though the texts of most of the Fathers are admitted to be in many cases uncertain. Some strange assertions are made, e.g., that we "have no codex older than the year 400, if so old". There are minor inaccuracies in Mr. Conybeare's article which surprise one. The well-known discoverer of the Sinaitic Syriac codex appears as Mrs. Lewes. The verb to mean gets the form "meaned" as its past. Principal James Drummond begins an able and careful examination of the use of the phrase "Righteousness of God" in St. Paul's epistles. The type and printing of the new Journal are delightful.

The current number of the American Journal of Theology opens with an article by F. B. Jevons of Durham on "The Fundamental Principles of the Science of Religion," which makes rather stiff reading. Professor G. B. Stevens, of Yale, follows with a paper on the question, "Is there a self-consistent New Testament Eschatology?" which is dealt with in an interesting, scholarly and discriminating way, although the difficulty of bringing the various statements into harmony is perhaps made greater than it is. In the varied and instructive matter that makes up the rest of the number we notice specially an article by Professor Karl Budde on "The Old Testament and the Excavations". It is vigorously written and deserves attentive reading. Many things are excellently well put in it, and it recalls critics to a sense of the reasonable, the patient and the restrained in their investigations and still more in their publications. The faults of the new edition of Schrader's Cuneiform Inscriptions of the Old Testament, for which Winckler is responsible, are very plainly stated, and in this Professor Budde does a real service to science.

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